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THE

RUDIMENTS

OF

English Grammar, &c.

By J. B. Smith, New York

THE
RUDIMENTS
OF
English Grammar,

Adapted to the Use of Schools;

WITH
NOTES and OBSERVATIONS,

For the Use of Those

Who have made some Proficiency in
the Language.

By JOSEPH PRIESTLEY,
LL. D. F. R. S.

L O N D O N :

Printed for T. BECKET and P. A. DE HONDT in
the Strand, and J. JOHNSON in Paternoster-Row.

M. DCC. LXVIII.

T. H. F.

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English Grammar

Adapted to the Use of Schools



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THE
PREFACE.

IN the first composition of the *Rudiments of English Grammar*, I had no farther views than to the use of schools; and, therefore, contented myself with explaining the fundamental principles of the language, in as plain and familiar a manner as I could. Afterwards, taking a more extensive view of language in general, and of the English language in particular, I began to collect materials for a much larger work upon this subject; and did not chuse to republish the former work, till I had executed the other; as I imagined, that this could not fail to suggest several improvements in the plan of it. How-

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ever, being frequently importuned to republish the former grammar, and being so much employed in studies of a very different nature, that I cannot accomplish what I had proposed, I have, in this treatise, republished that work, with improvements, and so much of the materials I had collected for the larger, as may be of practical use to those who write the language. These materials, therefore, I have reduced into as good an order as I can, and have subjoined them to the former grammar, under the title of *Notes and Observations, for the Use of those who have made some Proficiency in the Language.*

I have retained the method of *question and answer* in the rudiments, because I am still persuaded, it is both the most convenient for the master, and the most intelligible to the scholar. I have also been so far from departing from the simplicity of the plan of that short grammar, that I have made it, in some respects, still more simple; and I think it, on that account, more suitable to the genius of the English language. I own I am surprized to see so much of the distribution, and technical terms of the Latin grammar, retained

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retained in the grammar of our tongue ; where they are exceedingly awkward, and absolutely superfluous ; being such as could not possibly have entered into the head of any man, who had not been previously acquainted with Latin.

Indeed, this absurdity has, in some measure, gone out of fashion with us ; but still so much of it is retained, in all the grammars that I have seen, as greatly injures the uniformity of the whole ; and the very same reason that has induced several grammarians to go so far as they have done, should have induced them to go farther. A little reflection may, I think, suffice to convince any person, that we have no more business with a *future tense* in our language, than we have with the whole system of Latin moods and tenses ; because we have no modification of our verbs to correspond to it ; and if we had never heard of a future tense in some other language, we should no more have given a particular name to the combination of the verb with the auxiliary *shall* or *will*, than to those that are made with the auxiliaries *do*, *have*, *can*, *must*, or any other.

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The only natural rule for the use of technical terms to express time, &c. is to apply them to distinguish the different modifications of words; and it seems wrong to confound the account of *inflections*, either with the grammatical uses of the *combinations* of words, of the *order* in which they are placed, or of the *words which express relations*, and which are equivalent to inflections in other languages.

Whenever this plain rule is departed from, with respect to any language whatever, the true symmetry of the grammar is lost, and it becomes clogged with superfluous terms and divisions. Thus we see the optative mood, and the perfect and pluperfect tenses of the passive voice, absurdly transferred from the Greek language into the Latin, where there were no modifications of verbs to correspond to them. The authors of that distribution might, with the very same reason, have introduced the dual number into Latin; and *duo homines* would have made just as good a dual number, as *utinam amem* is an optative mood, or *amatus fui* a perfect tense. I cannot help flattering myself, that future grammarians will

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will owe me some obligation, for introducing this uniform simplicity, so well suited to the genius of our language, into the English grammar.

It is possible I may be thought to have leaned too much from the Latin idiom, with respect to several particulars in the structure of our language; but I think it is evident, that all other grammarians have leaned too much to the analogies of that language, contrary to our modes of speaking, and to the analogies of other languages more like our own. It must be allowed, that the custom of speaking is the original, and only just standard of any language. We see, in all grammars, that this is sufficient to establish a rule, even contrary to the strongest analogies of the language with itself. Must not this custom, therefore, be allowed to have some weight, in favour of those forms of speech, to which our best writers and speakers seem evidently prone; forms which are contrary to no analogy of the language with itself, and which have been disapproved by grammarians, only from certain abstract and arbitrary considerations, and when

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their decisions were not prompted by the genius of the language; which discovers itself in nothing more than in the general propensity of those who use it to certain modes of construction. I think, however, that I have not, in any case, seemed to favour what our grammarians will call an irregularity, but where the genius of the language, and not only single examples, but the general practice of those who write it, and the almost universal custom of those who speak it, have obliged me to do it. I also think I have seemed to favour those irregularities, no more than the degree of the propensity I have mentioned, when unchecked by a regard to arbitrary rules, in those who use the forms of speech I refer to, will authorize me.

If I have done any essential service to my native tongue, I think it will arise from my detecting in time a very great number of *gallicisms*, which have insinuated themselves into the style of many of our most justly admired writers; and which, in my opinion, tend greatly to injure the true idiom of the English language, being contrary to its most established analogies.

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I dare say, the collections I have made of this nature, will surprize many persons who are well acquainted with modern compositions. They surprize myself, now that I see them all together; and I even think, the writers themselves will be surprized, when they see them pointed out. For I do not suppose, that they designedly adopted those forms of speech, which are evidently French, but that they fell into them inadvertently, in consequence of being much conversant with French authors.

I think there will be an advantage in my having collected examples from modern writings, rather than from those of Swift, Addison, and others, who wrote about half a century ago, in what is generally called the classical period of our tongue. By this means we may see what is the real character and turn of the language at present; and by comparing it with the writings of preceding authors, we may better perceive which way it is tending, and what extreme we should most carefully guard against.

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It may excite a smile in some of my readers, to see what books passed through my hands at the time I was making these collections, and I might very easily have suppressed their names; but I am not ashamed of its being known, that I sometimes read for amusement, and even any thing that may fall in my way. Besides, I think there is a real advantage in making such collections as these from books which may be supposed to be written in a hasty manner, when the writers would not pay much attention to arbitrary rules, but indulge that natural propensity, which is the effect of the general custom, and genius of the language, as it is commonly spoken. It is not from the writings of grammarians and critics that we can form a judgement of the real present state of any language, even as it is spoken in polite conversation.

Some of my examples will be found without authorities, and many of them without references to the particular passage of the author. This was generally owing to mere inattention, in omitting to note the author, or the place, at the time

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time I was reading; and afterwards, the oversight was irretrievable.

I make no apology for the freedom I have taken with the works of living authors in my collections. Except a very few pages in Swift, I read nothing with an immediate view to them. This was always a secondary consideration; but if any thing struck me in the course of my reading, I did not fail to note it. If I be thought to have borne harder upon Mr. Hume than upon any other living author, he is obliged for it to the great reputation his writings have justly gained him, and to my happening to read them at the time that I did; and I would not pay any man, for whom I have the least esteem, so ill a compliment, as to suppose, that exactness in the punctillios of grammar was an object capable of giving him the least disturbance. This is the smallest point of excellence, even with respect to style; and style, in its whole extent, is but a very small object in the eye of a philosopher. I even think a man cannot give a more certain mark of the narrowness of his mind, and of the little progress he has made in true science, than

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than to show, either by his vanity with respect to himself, or the acrimony of his censure with respect to others, that this business is of much moment with him. We have infinitely greater things before us; and if these gain their due share of our attention, this subject, of grammatical criticism, will be almost nothing. The noise that is made about it, is one of the greatest marks of the frivolism of a great many readers, and writers too of the present age.

Not that I think the business of language, and of grammar is a matter of no importance, even to a philosopher. It is, in my opinion, a matter of very considerable consequence; but in another view. That I have, accordingly, given a good deal of attention to it, will, I hope, appear by *a Course of Lectures on the Theory of Language, and Universal Grammar*, which was printed some years ago for private use, and which I propose to correct, and make public. To the same treatise I must, likewise, refer my readers for the satisfaction I may be able to give them, with respect to the definitions of terms, and some other articles relating to Grammar,

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mar, in which I differ from Mr. Harris, and other grammarians

With respect to our own language, there seems to be a kind of claim upon all who make use of it, to do something for its improvement; and the best thing we can do for this purpose at present, is to exhibit its actual structure, and the varieties with which it is used. When these are once distinctly pointed out, and generally attended to, the best forms of speech, and those which are most agreeable to the analogy of the language, will soon recommend themselves, and come into general use; and when, by this means, the language shall be written with sufficient uniformity, we may hope to see a complete grammar of it. At present, it is by no means ripe for such a work; but we may approximate to it very fast, if all persons who are qualified to make remarks upon it, will give a little attention to the subject. In such a case, a few years might be sufficient to complete it. The progress of every branch of real science seems to have been prodigiously accelerated of late. The present age may hope to see
a new

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a new and capital æra in the history of every branch of useful knowledge; and I hope that the English language, which cannot fail to be the vehicle of a great part of it, will come in for some share of improvement, and acquire a more fixed and established character than it can boast at present.

But our grammarians appear to me to have acted precipitately in this business, and to have taken a wrong method of fixing our language. This will never be effected by the arbitrary rules of any man, or body of men whatever; because these suppose the language actually fixed already, contrary to the real state of it: whereas a language can never be properly fixed, till all the varieties with which it is used, have been held forth to public view, and the general preference of certain forms have been declared, by the general practice afterwards. Whenever I have mentioned any variety in the grammatical forms that are used to express the same thing, I have seldom scrupled to say which of them I prefer; but this is to be understood as nothing more than a conjecture,

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conjecture, which time must confirm or refute.

A circumstance which may give us hopes to see the speedy accomplishment of the design of completing the grammar of our language, is the exceeding great simplicity of its structure, arising, chiefly, from the paucity of our inflections of words. For this we are, perhaps, in some measure, indebted to the long-continued barbarism of the people from whom we received it. The words we afterwards borrowed from foreign languages, though they now make more than one half of the substance of ours, were like more plentiful nourishment to a meagre body, that was grown to its full stature, and become too rigid to admit of any new modification of its parts. They have added considerably to the bulk and gracefulness of our language; but have made no alteration in the simplicity of its original form.

Grammar may be compared to a treatise of *Natural Philosophy*; the one consisting of observations on the various changes, combinations, and mutual affections
of

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of words; and the other on those of the parts of nature; and were the language of men as uniform as the works of nature, the *grammar of language* would be as indisputable in its principles as the *grammar of nature*. But since good authors have adopted different forms of speech, and in a case which admits of no standard but that of *custom*, one authority may be of as much weight as another; the *analogy of language* is the only thing to which we can have recourse, to adjust these differences. For language, to answer the intent of it, which is to express our thoughts with certainty in an intercourse with one another, must be fixed and consistent with itself.

By an attention to these maxims hath this grammatical performance been conducted. The best and the most numerous authorities have been carefully followed. Where they have been contradictory, recourse hath been had to analogy, as the last resource. If this should decide for neither of two contrary practices, the thing must remain undecided, till all-governing custom shall declare in favour of the one or the other.

As

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As to a public *Academy*, invested with authority to ascertain the use of words, which is a project that some persons are very sanguine in their expectations from, I think it not only unsuitable to the genius of a *free nation*, but in itself ill calculated to reform and fix a language. We need make no doubt but that the best forms of speech will, in time, establish themselves by their own superior excellence: and, in all controversies, it is better to wait the decisions of *Time*, which are slow and sure, than to take those of *Synods*, which are often hasty and injudicious. A *manufacture* for which there is a great demand, and a *language* which many persons have leisure to read and write, are both sure to be brought, in time, to all the perfection of which they are capable. What would *Academics* have contributed to the perfection of the *Greek* and *Latin* languages? Or who, in those free states, would have submitted to them?

The propriety of introducing the *English grammar* into *English schools*, cannot be disputed; a competent knowledge of our own language being both useful and
orna-

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ornamental in every profession, and a critical knowledge of it absolutely necessary to all persons of a liberal education. The little difficulty there is apprehended to be in the study of it, is the chief reason, I believe, why it hath been so much neglected. The *Latin* was so complex a language that it made, of necessity (notwithstanding the *Greek* was the learned tongue at Rome) a considerable branch of Roman school education: whereas ours, by being more simple, is, perhaps, less generally understood. And though the *Grammar-school* be, on all accounts, the most proper place for learning it; how many Grammar-schools have we, and of no small reputation, which are destitute of all provision for the regular teaching of it? All the skill that our youth at school have in it, being acquired in an indirect manner; viz. by the mere practice of using it in verbal translations.

Indeed, it is not much above a century ago, that our native tongue seemed to be looked upon as below the notice of a classical scholar; and men of learning made very little use of it, either in conversation, or in writing. And even since it hath
been

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been made the vehicle of knowledge of all kinds, it hath not found its way into the schools appropriated to language, in proportion to its growing importance; most of my cotemporaries, I believe, being sensible, that their knowledge of the grammar of their mother tongue hath been acquired by their own study and observation, since they have passed the rudiments of the schools.

To obviate this inconvenience, we must introduce into our schools *English grammar*, *English compositions*, and frequent *English translations* from authors in other languages. The common objection to English compositions, that it is like requiring brick to be made without straw; (boys not being supposed to be capable of so much reflection, as is necessary to treat any subject with propriety) is a very frivolous one: since it is very easy to contrive a variety of exercises introductory to *Themes* upon moral and scientific subjects; in many of which the whole attention may be employed upon language only; and from thence youth may be led on in a regular series of compositions, in which the transition from *language* to *sentiment*

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sentiment may be as gradual and easy as possible.

An Appendix would have been made to this grammar of examples of *bad English*; for they are really useful; but that they make so uncouth an appearance in print. And it can be no manner of trouble to any teacher to supply the want of them, by a false reading of any good author, and requiring his pupils to point out, and rectify his mistakes. If any of the *additional observations* be used in schools, it will be sufficient for the master to read the passages as he finds them, and to require of his pupils the proper corrections, and the reasons alledged for them.

I must not conclude this preface, without making my acknowledgements to *Mr. Johnson*, whose admirable dictionary has been of the greatest use to me in the study of our language. It is pity he had not formed as just, and as extensive an idea of English grammar. Perhaps this very useful work may still be reserved for his distinguished abilities in this way.

I must,

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I must, also, acknowledge my obligations to *Dr. Lowth*, whose *short introduction to English grammar* was first published about a month after the former edition of mine. Though our plans, definitions of terms, and opinions, differ very considerably, I have taken a few of his examples (though generally for a purpose different from his) to make my own more complete. He, or any person, is welcome to make the same use of those which I have collected. It is from an amicable union of labours, together with a generous emulation in all the friends of science, that we may most reasonably expect the extension of all kinds of knowledge.

The candid critic will, I hope, excuse, and point out to me, any mistakes he may think I have fallen into in this performance. In such a number of observations, most of them (with respect to myself, at least) original, it would be very extraordinary, if none of them should prove hasty or injudicious.

T H E

THE PREFACE

I must also acknowledge my obligations to Dr. Lank, whose name is so frequently mentioned in the present edition of mine. Through our plans, discussions, correspondence, and opinions, which very considerably, I have taken a view of his examples (the only genuine one, a genuine thinker, from 1840 to 1845, my own work complete). I am of the opinion, as before so much, the same that the which I have collected. It is from a scientific union of labours, together with a general emulation in all the lines of thought, that we may most reasonably expect the extension of all kinds of knowledge.

The candid critic will, I hope, excuse and point out to me, any mistakes he may think I have fallen into in this performance. In such a number of observations, most of them, with respect to my self, at least, original, it would be very extraordinary, if none of them should prove false or injudicious.

THE



The RUDIMENTS of ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

The GENERAL DISTRIBUTION.

LANGUAGE is a method of conveying our ideas to the minds of other persons; and the *grammar* of any language is a collection of observations on the structure of it, and a system of rules for the proper use of it.

Every language consists of a number of words, and words consist of letters.

In the English language the following twenty-six letters are made use of; A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.

B

Five

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Five of these letters, viz. *a, e, i, o, u*, are called *vowels*, and are capable of being distinctly sounded by themselves. *y* is also sometimes used as a vowel, having the same sound as *i*. The conjunction of two vowels makes a *diphthong*, and of three a *triphthong*.

The rest of the letters are called *consonants*, being sounded in conjunction with vowels. Of these, however, *l, m, n, r, f, s*, are called *semi-vowels*, giving an imperfect sound without the help of a vowel; and *l, m, n, r*, are, moreover, called *liquids*. But *b, c, d, g, k, p, q, t*, are called *mutes*, yielding no sound at all without the help of a vowel.

Any number of letters, which together give a distinct sound, make a *syllable*, and several syllables are generally used to compose a word.

Having given this view of the constituent parts of the English language, I shall consider the Grammar of it under the following Heads.

I. Of the inflections of words.

II. Of the grammatical use and signification of certain words; especially such as the paucity of inflections obliges

GENERAL DISTRIBUTION. 3

obliges us to make use of, in order to express what, in other languages, is effected by a change of termination, &c.

III. Of Syntax, comprising the order of words in a sentence, and the correspondence of one word to another.

IV. Of Prosody, or the rules of versification.

V. Of grammatical figures.

I shall adopt the usual distribution of words into eight classes, viz.

NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, PRONOUNS, VERBS, ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, CONJUNCTIONS, and INTERJECTIONS.

I do this in compliance with the practice of most *Grammarians*; and because, if any number, in a thing so arbitrary, must be fixed upon, this seems to be as comprehensive and distinct as any. All the innovation I have made hath been to throw out the *Participle*, and substitute the *Adjective*, as more evidently a distinct part of speech.

PART I.

Of the Inflections of Words.

SECTION I.

Of the Inflections of Nouns.

Q. **W**HAT is a NOUN?

A. A NOUN or (as it is sometimes called) a SUBSTANTIVE, is the name of any thing; as *a Horse, a Tree, John, Thomas.*

Q. How many kinds of nouns are there?

A. Two; PROPER and COMMON.

Q. Which are nouns, or substantives, COMMON?

A. Such as denote the kinds or species of things; as *a Man, a Horse, a River*; which may be understood of any man, any horse, or any river.

Q. Which are called nouns, or substantives, PROPER?

A. Such as denote the individuals of any species; as *John, Sarah, the Severn, London.*

Q. What

Q. What changes of termination do nouns admit of?

A. The terminations of nouns are changed on two accounts principally; **NUMBER**, and **CASE**; and sometimes also on account of **GENDER**.

Q. How many **NUMBERS** are there; and what is meant by **NUMBER**?

A. There are two **NUMBERS**; the **SINGULAR**, when one only is meant; and the **PLURAL**, when more are intended.

Q. How is the plural number formed?

A. The plural number is formed by adding [s] to the singular; as *River*, *Rivers*; *Table*, *Tables*: Or [es] where [s] could not otherwise be sounded; viz. after [ch] [s] [sh] [x] and [z] as *Fox*, *Foxes*; *Church*, *Churches*.

Q. What *exceptions* are there to this general rule?

A. There are two principal exceptions to this rule. 1. The plural of some nouns ends in [en] as *Ox*, *Oxen*. 2. When the singular ends in [f] or [fe] the plural usually ends in [ves] as *Calf*, *Calves*; *Wife*, *Wives*. Though there are some few of these terminations that follow the general rule; as *Muff*, *Muffs*; *Chief*, *Chiefs*.

Q. Suppose a noun end in [y].

B 3

A. In

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A. In the plural it is changed into *ies*; as *Fairy, Fairies; Gallery, Galleries.*

Q. Are there no other irregularities in the formation of numbers, besides those that are taken notice of in these exceptions?

A. There are several plural terminations that can be reduced to no rule; of which are the following, *Die, Dice; Goose, Geese; Foot, Feet; Tooth, Teeth.*

Q. Is the plural termination always different from the singular?

A. No. They are sometimes the very same; as in the words *Sheep, Deer, &c.*

Q. Have all nouns a singular termination?

A. No. Some nouns have only a plural termination in use; as *Asbes, Bellows, Lungs.*

Q. What are the CASES of nouns?

A. CASES are those changes in the terminations of nouns, which serve to express their relation to other words.

Q. How many cases are there?

A. There are two cases; the NOMINATIVE and the GENITIVE.

Q. What is the NOMINATIVE case?

A. The NOMINATIVE case is that in which we barely name a thing; as *a Man, a Horse.*

Q. What

N O U N S.

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Q. What is the GENITIVE case?

A. The GENITIVE case is that which denotes property or possession; and is formed by adding [*s*] with an apostrophe before it to the nominative; as *Solomon's wisdom*; *The Men's wit*; *Venus's beauty*; or the apostrophe only in the plural number, when the nominative ends in [*s*] as the *Stationers' arms*.

Q. Is the relation of property or possession always expressed by a genitive case?

A. No. It is likewise expressed by the particle [*of*] before the word; as *the wisdom of Solomon*; *the beauty of Venus*; *the arms of the Stationers*.

Q. How many GENDERS are there? and what is meant by Gender?

A. There are two GENDERS; the MASCULINE, to denote the male kind, and the FEMININE, to denote the female.

Q. By what change of termination is the distinction of gender expressed?

A. The distinction of gender (when it is expressed by a change of termination) is made by adding [*ess*] to the masculine to make it feminine; as *Lion*, *Lioness*; *Heir*, *Heiress*.

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SECTION II.

Of the Inflections of Adjectives.

Q. **W**HAT are ADJECTIVES ?

A. ADJECTIVES are words that denote the properties or qualities of things; as, *good, tall, swift.*

Q. On what account do adjectives change their terminations ?

A. Adjectives change their terminations on account of COMPARISON only.

Q. How many degrees of comparison are there ?

A. There are three degrees of comparison; the POSITIVE, in which the quality is barely mentioned; as *hard*: the COMPARATIVE, which expresses the quality somewhat increased, and is formed by adding [*r*] or [*er*] to the positive; as *harder*; and the SUPERLATIVE, which expresseth the highest degree of the quality, by adding [*st*] or [*est*] to the positive; as *hardest*.

Q. Are all adjectives compared in this manner ?

A. No. Some adjectives are compared very irregularly; as the following:

Pos.

ADJECTIVES.

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Pos.	Comp.	Sup.
<i>Good,</i>	<i>Better,</i>	<i>Best,</i>
<i>Bad,</i>	<i>Worse,</i>	<i>Worst,</i>
<i>Little,</i>	<i>Less,</i>	<i>Least,</i>
<i>Much,</i>	<i>More,</i>	<i>Most.</i>
<i>Near,</i>	<i>Nearer,</i>	<i>Nearest or next.</i>
<i>Late,</i>	<i>Later,</i>	<i>Latest or last.</i>

Q. Are the degrees of comparison always expressed by a change of termination?

A. No. Some adjectives, and especially *Polysyllables*, to avoid a harshness in the pronunciation, are compared, not by change of termination, but by particles prefixed; as *benevolent, more benevolent, most benevolent.*

SECTION III.

Of the Inflections of Pronouns.

Q. **W**HAT are PRONOUNS?

A. PRONOUNS are words that are used as substitutes for nouns, to prevent the too frequent and tiresome repetition of them; as *He did this or that*, instead of expressly naming the person doing, and the thing done, every time there is occasion to speak of them.

Q. How many kinds of pronouns are there?

A. There are four kinds of pronouns; PERSONAL, POSSESSIVE, RELATIVE, and DEMONSTRATIVE.

Q. Have not some pronouns a case peculiar to themselves?

A. Yes. It is generally called the OBLIQUE case; and is used after most verbs and prepositions.

Q. Which are the PERSONAL pronouns?

A. The PERSONAL pronouns are *I, thou, he, she, it*, with their plurals.

Q. How are the personal pronouns formed?

A. Very irregularly, in the following manner:

Sing.

	Sing.	Plural.
Nominative.	<i>I.</i>	<i>We.</i>
Oblique case.	<i>Me.</i>	<i>Us.</i>
Nominative.	<i>Thou.</i>	<i>Ye.</i>
Oblique case.	<i>Thee.</i>	<i>You.</i>
Nominative.	<i>He. She.</i>	<i>They.</i>
Oblique case.	<i>Him. Her</i>	<i>Them.</i>
Nominative.	<i>It.</i>	<i>They.</i>
Oblique case.	<i>It.</i>	<i>Them.</i>
Genitive.	<i>Its.</i>	<hr/>

Q. Which are the pronouns POSSESSIVE?

A. The pronouns POSSESSIVE are, *my, our, thy, your, his, her, their.*

Q. How are the pronouns possessive declined?

A. Pronouns possessive, being wholly of the nature of adjectives, are, like them, indeclinable; except that when they are used without their substantives, *my* becomes *mine*; *thy, thine*; *our, ours*; *your, yours*; *her, hers*; *their, theirs*; as *This book is mine: This is not yours, but theirs.*

Q. Which are the RELATIVE pronouns?

A. The RELATIVE pronouns (so called because they refer, or relate to an antecedent or subsequent substantive) are *who, which, what, and whether.*

Q. How

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Q. How is *who* declined ?

A. Sing. and plural.

Nominative. *Who*.

Genitive. *Whose*.

Oblique. *Whom*.

Q. Are *which*, *what*, and *whether*, declinable ?

A. No. Except *whose* may be said to be the genitive of *which*.

Q. What is meant by the ANTECEDENT of a relative ?

A. That preceding noun to which it is related, as an adjective is to its substantive ; as the word *Darius*, when we say, *This is Darius whom Alexander conquered*.

Q. Which are the pronouns DEMONSTRATIVE ?

A. The pronouns DEMONSTRATIVE are *this*, *that*, *other*, and *the same*.

Q. How are the demonstrative pronouns declined ?

A. *This* makes *these*, and *that* makes *those* in the plural number ; and *other* makes *others* when it is found without it's substantive.

SECTION

SECTION IV.

Of the Inflections of Verbs.

Q. WHAT is a VERB?

A. A VERB is a word that expresseth what is affirmed of, or attributed to a thing; as *I love*; *the horse neighs*.

Q. What is meant by the SUBJECT of an affirmation?

A. The person or thing concerning which the affirmation is made. When we say *Alexander conquered Darius*, *Alexander* is the subject; because we affirm concerning him, that he conquered *Darius*.

Q. How many kinds of verbs are there?

A. TWO; TRANSITIVE and NEUTER.

Q. What is a verb transitive?

A. A verb transitive, besides having a subject, implies, likewise, an object of the affirmation, upon which its meaning may, as it were, pass; and without which the sense would not be complete. The verb *to conquer* is transitive, because it implies an object, that is, a person or kingdom, &c. conquered; and *Darius* is that object, when we say, *Alexander conquered Darius*.

Q. What

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Q. What is a verb NEUTER ?

A. A verb neuter has no object, different from the subject of the affirmation; as *to rest*. When we say *Alexander resteth*, the sense is complete, without any other words.

Q. What is the RADICAL FORM of verbs, or that from which all other forms and modifications of them are derived ?

A. The RADICAL FORM of verbs is that in which they follow the particle *to*; as *to love*.

Q. What circumstances affect the terminations of verbs ?

A. TWO. TENSE and PERSON; besides NUMBER, which they have in common with nouns.

Q. How many TENSES have verbs ?

A. Verbs have two TENSES; the PRESENT TENSE, denoting the *time present*; and the PRETER TENSE, which expresseth the *time past*.

Q. What changes of termination do these *tenses* of verbs occasion ?

A. The first person of the preter tense is generally formed by adding [*ed*] or [*d*] to the first person of the present tense (which is the same as the radical form of the verb) as *I love, I loved*. But many verbs form their preter tense without regard

gard to any rule or analogy; as *to awake*, *I awoke*; *to think*, *I thought*.

Q. What changes of termination are occasioned by the *persons* of verbs?

A. In both tenses, the second person singular adds [*st*] or [*est*] to the first person (which, in the third person singular of the present tense, changes into [*eth*] or [*es*]) all the persons of the plural number retaining the termination of the first person singular.

Q. Give an example of a verb formed in its tenses and persons.

A. Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
<i>I love.</i>	<i>We love.</i>
<i>Thou lovest.</i>	<i>Ye love.</i>
<i>He loveth, or loves.</i>	<i>They love.</i>

Preter Tense.

<i>I loved.</i>	<i>We loved.</i>
<i>Thou lovedst.</i>	<i>Ye loved.</i>
<i>He loved.</i>	<i>They loved.</i>

Present Tense.

<i>I grant.</i>	<i>We grant.</i>
<i>Thou grantest.</i>	<i>Ye grant.</i>
<i>He granteth or grants.</i>	<i>They grant.</i>

Preter

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Preter Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I granted.

We granted.

Thou grantedst.

Ye granted.

He granted.

They granted.

Q. Are these changes of termination in the persons of verbs always observed.

A. No. They are generally omitted after the words, *if, though, e'er, before, whether, except, whatsoever, whomsoever, and words of wishing* : as *Doubtless thou art our father, though Abraham acknowledge us not ; [not acknowledgeth].*

Q. What is this form of the tenses called?

A. This form, because it is rarely used but in conjunction with some or other of the preceding words, may be called the *conjunctive* form of the tenses. It is as follows :

Conjunctive Present.

Singular.

Plural.

If I love.

If we love.

If thou love.

If ye love.

If he love.

If they love.

Conjunctive Preter Tense.

If I loved.

If we loved.

If thou loved.

If ye loved.

If he loved.

If they loved.

Q. What

Q. What are the PARTICIPLES of verbs?

A. PARTICIPLES are adjectives derived from verbs, and retaining their signification.

Q. How many participles hath a verb?

A. A verb hath two participles. 1. The participle *Present*, which denotes that the action spoken of is then taking place, and ends in [*ing*] as *bearing*, *writing*. 2. The participle *Preterite*, which denotes its being past, and ends in [*ed*] being the same with the first person of the preter tense; as *loved*.

Q. Do all participles preterite end in [*ed*]?

A. No. There are many participles preterite, which neither end in [*ed*] nor take any other termination of the preter tense; as to *begin*, Preter, *I began*. Part. It is *begun*. To *die*, Preter, *He died*. Part. He is *dead*: moreover, some verbs have two participles preterite, which may be used indifferently; as to *load*; he is *loaded*; he is *laden*. To *sow*; it is *sowed*; it is *sown*.

Q. In what sense is a verb to be understood, when it occurs in its radical form?

A. It hath, then, the force of a command from the person speaking to the person

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person or persons to whom it is addressed; as, *write*, i. e. *do thou*, or *do ye write*.

Q. What is the meaning of the RADICAL FORM of a verb preceded by the particle *to*?

A. It is then no more than the name of an action or state; as, *to die* is common to all men; i. e. *death* is common to all men.

Q. What are AUXILIARY verbs?

A. AUXILIARY verbs are verbs that are used in conjunction with other verbs, to ascertain the time, and other circumstances of an action with greater exactness.

Q. Which are the principal auxiliary verbs?

A. The principal auxiliary verbs are *to do*, *to have*, *to be*, and the imperfect verbs *shall*, *will*, *can*, *may*, and *must*.

Q. How are these verbs inflected?

A. They are all inflected with considerable irregularity; and the verbs *shall*, *will*, *can*, and *may*, express no certain distinction of time; and, therefore, have no proper tenses: but they have two forms, one of which expresses absolute certainty, and may, therefore, be called the *absolute form*; and the other implies a condition, and may, therefore, be called the *conditional form*.

Q. What

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Q. What are the inflections of the verbs *to do*, *to have*, and *to be*.

To Do.

Present Tense.

Sing.	Plural.
<i>I do.</i>	<i>We do.</i>
<i>Thou doest, or dost.</i>	<i>Ye do.</i>
<i>He doth, or does.</i>	<i>They do.</i>

(a) Preter Tense.

<i>I did.</i>	<i>We did.</i>
<i>Thou didst.</i>	<i>Ye did.</i>
<i>He did.</i>	<i>They did.</i>

Participles.

Present. *Doing.*
Preterite. *Done.*

To Have.

Present Tense.

<i>I have.</i>	<i>We have.</i>
<i>Thou hast.</i>	<i>Ye have.</i>
<i>He hath, or has.</i>	<i>They have.</i>

(a) After each tense may be subjoined the *conjunctive* form of it; as, *If I do*, *if thou do*. *If I did*, *if thou did*, &c.

Preter

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Præter Tense.

Sing.	Plural.
<i>I had.</i>	<i>We had.</i>
<i>Thou hadst.</i>	<i>Ye had.</i>
<i>He had.</i>	<i>They had.</i>

Participles.

Present.	<i>Having.</i>
Præter.	<i>Had.</i>

To Be.

Present Tense.

<i>I am.</i>	<i>We are.</i>
<i>Thou art.</i>	<i>Ye are.</i>
<i>He is.</i>	<i>They are.</i>

Conjunctive form of the present tense.

<i>If I be.</i>	<i>If we be.</i>
<i>If thou be (b).</i>	<i>If ye be.</i>
<i>If he be.</i>	<i>If they be.</i>

Præter Tense.

<i>I was.</i>	<i>We were.</i>
<i>Thou wast.</i>	<i>Ye were.</i>
<i>He was.</i>	<i>They were.</i>

Conjunctive Form.

<i>If I were.</i>	<i>If we were.</i>
<i>If thou wert.</i>	<i>If ye were.</i>
<i>If he were.</i>	<i>If they were.</i>

(b) Mr. Johnson says *best*.

Parti-

Participles.

Present. *Being.*

Preter. *Been.*

Q. What are the inflections of the verbs *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, and *must*?

A. *Shall.*

ABSOLUTE Form.

Sing.

I shall.

Thou shalt.

He shall.

Plural.

We shall.

Ye shall.

They shall.

CONDITIONAL Form.

I should.

Thou shouldest.

He should.

We should.

Ye should.

They should.

Will.

ABSOLUTE Form.

I will.

Thou wilt.

He will.

We will.

Ye will.

They will.

CONDITIONAL Form.

I would.

Thou wouldest.

He would.

We would.

Ye would.

They would.

May.

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May.

ABSOLUTE Form.

Sing.	Plural.
<i>I may.</i>	<i>We may.</i>
<i>Thou mayest.</i>	<i>Ye may.</i>
<i>He may.</i>	<i>They may.</i>

CONDITIONAL Form.

<i>I might.</i>	<i>We might.</i>
<i>Thou mightest.</i>	<i>Ye might.</i>
<i>He might.</i>	<i>They might.</i>

Can.

ABSOLUTE Form.

<i>I can.</i>	<i>We can.</i>
<i>Thou canst.</i>	<i>Ye can.</i>
<i>He can.</i>	<i>They can.</i>

CONDITIONAL Form.

<i>I could.</i>	<i>We could.</i>
<i>Thou couldst.</i>	<i>Ye could.</i>
<i>He could.</i>	<i>They could.</i>

Must.

Present Tense.

<i>I must.</i>	<i>We must.</i>
<i>Thou must.</i>	<i>Ye must.</i>
<i>He must.</i>	<i>They must.</i>

Q. What

Q. What are the COMPOUND TENSES of verbs?

A. The COMPOUND TENSES of verbs are the tenses of auxiliary verbs used in conjunction with some form, or participle of other verbs; as *I shall bear, I may have heard.*

Q. In what manner are the auxiliary verbs used in conjunction with other verbs?

A. To the several tenses of the auxiliary verb *to have*, is joined the *participle preterite*; as *I have written, I have been.* To those of the verb *to be*, are joined both the participles; the *present* and *preterite*: as *I am bearing, and I am heard*; and to all the rest of the auxiliary verbs is joined the *radical form* of the verb; as *I shall, will, may, must, can, or do write; I shall, will, may, must, or can be.*

Q. Into how many classes, or orders, may the compound tenses of verbs be distributed?

A. The compound tenses of verbs may be commodiously distributed into three distinct classes or orders; according as the auxiliary verbs that constitute them require the *radical form*, the *participle present*, or the *participle preterite* to be joined with them. They are likewise
single,

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single, double, or triple, according as one, two, or three auxiliary verbs are made use of.

Q. Repeat the compound tenses of the verb *to bear*.

A. The compound tenses of the *first order*, or those in which the *radical form* of the principal verb is made use of.

Will, can, may, must, or shall bear.

Absolute } *I shall bear, Thou shalt bear,*
form. } *He shall bear, &c.*

Condi- } *I should bear, Thou shouldest*
tional. } *bear, He should bear, &c. (d)*

The compound tenses of the *second order*, or those in which the participle present is made use of.

To be bearing.

Present } *I am bearing, Thou art*
tense. } *bearing, &c.*

Conjunct- } *If I be bearing, If thou be*
ive form. } *bearing, &c.*

Preterite. } *I was bearing, Thou wast*
} *bearing, &c.*

(d) In the same manner form the tenses made by *will, can, may, and must*. The conjunctive form of the tenses may likewise be supplied in its proper place, if it be thought necessary.

Con-

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Conjunctive. } *If I were bearing, If thou wert bearing, &c.*

Participle present. *Being bearing.*

Participle preterite. *Been bearing.*

The first Double Compound.

Shall be bearing.

Absolute form. } *I shall be bearing, Thou shalt be bearing, &c.*

Conditional. } *I should be bearing, Thou shouldst be bearing, &c.*

The second Double Compound.

To have been bearing.

Present tense. } *I have been bearing, Thou hast been bearing, &c.*

Preterite. } *I had been bearing, Thou hadst been bearing, &c.*

Participle present. *Having been bearing.*

The Triple Compound.

Shall have been bearing.

Absolute form. } *I shall have been bearing, Thou shalt have, &c.*

Conditional. } *I should have been bearing, Thou shouldst have, &c.*

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The compound tenses of the *third order* ; viz. those in which the participle preterite of the principal verb is used.

To be heard.

Present tense.	}	<i>I am heard, Thou art heard, &c.</i>
Conjunctive form.		<i>If I be heard, If thou be heard, &c.</i>
Preterite.	}	<i>I was heard, Thou wast heard, &c.</i>
Conjunctive.		<i>If I were heard, of thou wert heard, &c.</i>

Participle present. *Being heard.*
 ————— preterite. *Been heard.*

The first Double Compound.

Shall be heard.

Absolute form.	}	<i>I shall be heard, Thou shalt be heard, &c.</i>
Conditional.		<i>I should be heard, Thou shouldst, &c.</i>

The second Double Compound.

Shall have heard.

Absolute form.	}	<i>I shall have heard, Thou shalt have, &c.</i>
Conditional.		<i>I should have heard, Thou shouldst, &c.</i>

The

The third Double Compound.

To have been heard.

Present } *I have been heard, Thou hast*
tense. } *been heard, &c.*

Preterite. } *I had been heard, Thou hadst*
} *been heard, &c.*

Participle present. *Having been heard,*

The Triple Compound.

Shall have been heard.

Absolute } *I shall have been heard, Thou*
form. } *&c.*

Condi- } *I should have been heard, Thou*
onal. } *shouldest, &c.*

Q. What do you observe concerning these compound tenses?

A. It is observable that, in forming the tenses, all the change of termination is confined to the auxiliary that is named first; and therefore, secondly, That if the auxiliary which is first named, have no participle, there is no participle belonging to the tenses that are made by it.

To this section concerning the inflections of words, it may be convenient to subjoin an account of those classes which admit of few, or no inflections.

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Q. What are ADVERBS ?

A. ADVERBS are contractions of sentences, or of clauses of a sentence, generally serving to denote the *manner*, and other *circumstances* of an action ; as *wisely*, i. e. in a wise manner ; *now*, i. e. at this time ; *here*, in this place.

Q. How many kinds of adverbs are there ?

A. Adverbs may be distributed into as many kinds as there are circumstances of an action. They may, therefore be referred to a great variety of heads. The principal of them are the three following ; viz. 1st, Those of *Place* ; as *here*, *there*. 2dly, those of *Time* ; as *often*, *sometimes*, *presently*. And, 3dly, those of *Quality* or *manner*, which are derived from adjectives by adding [*ly*] to them ; as, *wisely*, *happily*, *firstly* ; from *wise*, *happy*, *first*.

Q. What is a PREPOSITION ?

A. A PREPOSITION is a word that expresseth the relation that one word hath to another ; such as *of*, *with*, *from*, *to* : as, *He bought it with money*, *He went to London*.

Q. What are CONJUNCTIONS ?

A. CONJUNCTIONS are words that join sentences together, and shew the manner of

of their dependance upon one another ; as *and, if, but, &c.*

Q. What are INTERJECTIONS ?

A. INTERJECTIONS are broken or imperfect words, denoting some emotion or passion of the mind ; as, *ah, oh, phy.*

It may not be improper, also, to lay down, in this place, for the use of learners, *Easy rules to distinguish the several parts of speech.*

A *Substantive* admits of [*a*] [*the*] *good, bad*, or some other known adjective before it ; as, a *good man*.

An *Adjective* hath no determinate meaning with only [*a*] or [*the*] before it ; but requires *man* or *thing* after it ; and admits of degrees of comparison ; as a *good man*, a *better man*.

A *Verb* admits of the personal pronouns before it, as *He loves, They love.*

Pronouns have been enumerated.

Adverbs do all, or most of them, answer to some one of these questions, *How ? How much ? When ? or Where ?* when the answer gives no word that is known, by the preceding rules, to be a substantive or adjective.

Prepositions easily admit the oblique cases of the personal pronouns, *me, him,*

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ber, &c. to follow them; as to me, with me, among them.

Conjunctions and Interjections are easily known by their definitions.

SECTION V.

Of the Derivation and Composition of Words.

BESIDES the constant and regular inflections of words, of which an account has been given in the preceding sections; there are many other changes, by means of which words pass from one class to another: but, because only some of the words of any class admit of a similar change, they are not usually enumerated among the grammatical changes of terminations. In nothing, however, is the genius of a language more apparent than in such changes; and, were they uniform and constant, they would have the same right to be taken notice of by grammarians that any other inflections have. Of these changes I shall here give the following short summary, extracted chiefly from Mr. Johnson,

Nouns

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Nouns are frequently converted into *verbs* by lengthening the sound of their vowels; as *to house*, *to braze*, *to glaze*, *to breathe*; from *house*, *brass*, *glass*, *breath*.

Sometimes nouns are elegantly converted into verbs without any change at all. *Cushioned*, Bolingbroke. *Diademed*, Pope. *Ribboned*, Lady M. W. Montague.

Verbs, with little or no variation, are converted into *substantives*, expressing what is denoted by the verb as done or procured; as *love*, a *fright*; from *to love*, *to fright*; and a *stroke*, from *struck*, the preterite of the verb *to strike*.

Besides these, words of the following terminations are generally derivative; *nouns* ending in

—*er*, derived from *verbs*, signify the agent; as *lover*, *writer*, *striker*.

Some nouns of this class, in consequence of frequent use, have ceased to be considered as belonging to it; and in this case the *e* is often changed into some other vowel, as *liar*, *conductor*.

—*ing*, signify the *action* of the verb they are derived from; as *the frightening*, *the striking*.

—*th*, are *abstract substantives* derived from *concrete adjectives*; as *length*, *strength*, *dear*; from *long*, *strong*, *dear*.

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- ness, } denote *character* or *quality*; as
- hood, or } *whiteness, hardness, manhood,*
- head, } *widowhood, godhead.*
- ship, signify *office, employment, state, or condition*; as *kingship, stewardship.*
- ery, action or habit; as *knavery, foolery, roguery.*
- wick, }
- rick, } *jurisdiction*; as, *bailiwick, bishop-*
- ry, } *rick, deanry, kingdom.*
- dom, }
- ian, profession; as, *theologian, physician.*
- ard, character or habit; as, *drunkard, dotard, dullard.*

- ment and } are derived from the French,
- age, } and generally signify the
- } *act* or the *habit*; as *com-*
- } *mandment, usage.*

- ée, the possessor (of French original also) as, *grantee*, one to whom a grant is made; *lessee*, to whom the lease is made, &c.

Nouns sometimes become *diminutives* by the addition of [*in*] or some other production of their termination; as *goslin, lambkin, billock, pickerel, rivulet.*

Adjectives ending in

- y and } are generally derived from *nouns,*
- full, } and signify *plenty* and *abundance*;
- } as *lousy, airy, joyful, fruitful.*
- some

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—*some* (q. d. *something*; i. e. *in some degree*) signify likewise *plenty*, but in a less degree than the terminations [y] and [ful] as *gamesome*, *lonesome*.

—*less*, signify *want*, as *worthless*, *joyless*.

—*ly*, (q. d. *like*) signify *likeness*, as *giantly*, *heavenly*.

—*ish*, signify *similitude* or *tendency* to a character, as *robinish*, *thievish*, *childish*; also belonging to a nation, as *Danish*, *Spanish*, *Irish*.

—*able*, derived from nouns or verbs, signify *capacity*; as *comfortable*, *tenable*, *improvable*.

Verbs ending in

—*en*, are frequently derived from adjectives, and signify the production of the quality; as *to lengthen*, *to strengthen*.

The participles prefixed to words, with their use in composition, are the following:

Ante— signifies *before*; as *Antediluvian*.

Anti— and } against; as *Antimonarchical*,

Contra— } *contradict*.

Circum— about; as *circumscribe*.

De—down; as *depose*, *depreciate*.

Dis—negation, or privation; as *disbelieve*, *dislike*, *disarm*.

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In (changed sometimes into [*im*] before [*m*] into [*il*] always before [*l*] into [*ir*] before [*r*] in words derived from the Latin, and into [*un*] in other words) signifies negation; as *unpleasant*, *ineffectual*, *imperfect*, *illegitimate*, *irrefragable*.

Mis—error; as *mistake*, *misrepresent*.

Per—through; as *persuade*, *persist*.

Post—after; as *postpone*.

Preter—beyond (in power) as *preternatural*.

Ultra—beyond (in place) as *Ultramontane*.

Inter—among; as *intermix*.

Trans—over; as *transfer*, *translate*.

Re—again, or backward; as *revolve*, *rebound*.

Super—above; as *supernatural*.

Sub—under; as *subscribe*.

PART II.

Of the grammatical Use and Signification of certain Words, especially such as the paucity of our inflections obliges us to make use of, in order to express what, in other languages, is effected by a change of termination.

SECTION I.

Of the Articles.

Q. **W**HAT are ARTICLES?

A. Articles are the words [*a*] and [*the*] placed before nouns, to ascertain the extent of their signification.

Q. What is the use of the article [*a*]?

A. The article [*a*] (before a consonant, but [*an*] before a vowel) intimates that one only of a species is meant, but not any one in particular; as, *This is a good book*; *i. e.* One among the books that are good. Hence it is called the article *Indefinite*.

Q. What

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Q. What is the use of the article [*the*] ?

A. The article [*the*] limits the signification of a word to one or more of a species; as *This is the book*; *These are the men*; i. e. this particular book, and these particular men. For this reason it is called the article *Definite*.

Q. In what sense is a noun to be understood, when neither of these articles is prefixed to it ?

A. Generally, in an unlimited sense, expressing not one in general, or one in particular, but every individual that can be comprehended in the term, as, *Man* is born to trouble; i. e. whoever partakes of human nature, *all mankind*.

SECTION

SECTION II.

Of the Use of the Auxiliary Verbs.

Q. IN what manner doth the auxiliary verb *to do* affect the signification of verbs?

A. It only renders the affirmation the more *emphatical*; as *I do love, I did hate*; i. e. *I love indeed, Indeed I hated.*

Q. In what manner doth the auxiliary verb *to be* affect the signification of verbs?

A. The auxiliary verb *to be*, joined with the *participle present* of a verb, expresses the affirmation with the greater emphasis and precision; as *I am writing*, i. e. *in the very action of writing*; and joined to the *participle preterite* of a verb, it signifies the suffering or receiving the action expressed; as *I am loved, I was hated.*

Q. What is the use of the auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will*.

A. When we simply *foretel*, we use *shall* in the first person, and *will* in the rest; as *I shall, or he will write*: but when we *promise, threaten, or engage*, we use *will* in the first person, and *shall* in the rest; as *I will, or he shall write.*

Q. In what manner do the auxiliary verbs

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verbs *can*, *may*, and *must*, affect the signification of verbs?

A. In the *absolute form*, the auxiliary verb *can*, signifies a present *power*; *may*, a *right*; and *must*, a *necessity* to do something that is not yet done; as *I can, may, or must, write*: and the *conditional forms* *could* and *might*, signify likewise, a *power* and *right* to do what is affirmed, but imply the intervention of some obstacle or impediment, that prevents its taking place; as *I could, or might write*; i. e. if nothing hindered.—The like may also be observed of the *conditional forms* of *shall* and *will*.

Q. In what manner doth the auxiliary verb *to have* affect the signification of verbs?

A. The auxiliary verb *to have* signifies that what is affirmed is or was past; as *I have received, I had written*; i. e. the action of receiving is now past, and the action of writing was then over.

Q. In what manner doth the auxiliary verb *to have* determine the time of any action?

A. When we make use of the auxiliary verb *to have*, we have no idea of any certain portion of time intervening between the time of the action and the time of speaking of it; the time of the action being

AUXILIARY VERBS. 39

being some period that extends to the present; as, *I have this year, or this morning, written; spoken* in the same year, or the same morning; whereas, speaking of any action done in a period of time that is wholly expired, we use the preter tense of the verb; as *last year, or yesterday, I wrote a letter*: intimating, that some certain portion of time is past between the time of the action, and the time of speaking of it.

Q. Are there no other verbs, besides those which are called *auxiliary*, that are joined in construction with other verbs, without being followed by the preposition *to*?

A. The verbs *bid, dare, read, make, see, bear, feel*, and also *act*, are used in the same construction; as, *He saw me write it. I heard him say it.*

One of the greatest difficulties in the English language, relates to the subject of this part; as it consists in the use of the conjunctive particles and prepositions, particularly *of, to, for, with, and in*, with a few others. Indeed, there is nothing in which the practice of our best authors is more variable or capricious: but I thought it would be best, to throw all the
remarks

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remarks I have made on this subject, into the *Additional Observations*.

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PART III.

Of Syntax ; comprising the Order of Words in a Sentence, and the Correspondence of one Word to another.

Q. WHAT is the usual place for the subject of the affirmation in an affirmative sentence ?

A. Before the verb ; as the word *Alexander* in the sentence, *Alexander conquered Darius*.

Q. What is its place in an interrogative sentence ?

A. Between the auxiliary and the radical form of the principal verb ; as, *Did Alexander conquer Darius ?*

Q. What is the usual place for the object of an affirmation ?

A. After the verb, as the word *Darius* in the sentence, *Alexander conquered Darius*.

Q. What is the usual place of the adjective ?

A. Im-

A. Immediately before the substantive ; as, *a good man, a fine horse.*

Q. In what cases is the adjective placed after the substantive?

A. When a verb is interposed between them ; as, *Great is the Lord* ; and when a clause of a sentence depends upon the adjective ; as, *a man generous to his enemies. Feed me with food convenient for me.*

Q. What is the proper place for the pronoun relative ?

A. Immediately after its antecedent ; as, *That is the Darius, whom Alexander conquered.*

Q. What is the most convenient place for an adverb, or a separate clause of a sentence ?

A. Between the subject and the verb ; as, *Alexander intirely conquered Darius. Alexander, in three battles, conquered Darius.* Or between the auxiliaries and the verb or participle ; as, *You have presently dispatched this business. I have been exceedingly pleased.*

Q. What is the correspondence of the adjective pronouns with their substantives ?

A. They must agree in number ; as, *This man. These men.*

Q. What is the correspondence of the verb and its subject ?

A. They

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A. They must have the same number, and person; as, *I love. Thou lovest. He loves. The sun shines, &c.*

Q. Suppose there be two subjects of the same affirmation, and they be both of the singular number?

A. The verb corresponding to them must be in the plural; as, *Your youth and merit have been abused.*

Q. In what circumstances is the oblique case of pronouns used?

A. After verbs transitive, and prepositions; as, *He loves her. I gave the book to him.*

As but few of the relations of words and sentences in construction are expressed by a change of termination in English, but generally by conjunctive particles, the art of English Syntax must consist, chiefly, in the proper application of the *conjunctive particles*; and the accurate use of these can only be learned from *observation* and a *dictionary*.

What I have observed on this subject will be found among the *Additional Observations*.

PART IV.

Of Prosody.

Q. WHAT is PROSODY?

A. PROSODY is that part of Grammar which teaches the rules of *Pronunciation*, and of *Verseification*.

Q. Wherein consists the art of *Pronunciation*?

A. In laying the *accent* upon the proper syllable of a word, and the *emphasis* upon the proper word of a sentence.

Q. Upon what doth the art of *Verseification* depend?

A. Upon arranging the syllables of words according to certain laws, respecting *quantity* or *accent*.

Q. What is most observable in the arrangement of syllables according to their quantity?

A. If the accent fall upon the *first* syllable, the *third*, the *fifth*, &c. the verse is said to consist of *Trochees*; which is called a foot of two syllables, whereof the first is long, and the second short.

If it fall upon the *second*, the *fourth*, the *sixth*, &c. as is most usual in English verse,
it

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it is said to consist of *Iambics*; which are feet of two syllables, whereof the first is short, and the second long.

If two syllables be pronounced both long, the foot is called a *spondee*; and if one long syllable be succeeded by two short ones continually, the verse is said to consist of *Dactyls*. I shall give a short specimen of each of these kinds of verse.

Trochaical.

In the | dāys of | ōld,

Stōries | plainly | tōld,

(e) *Iambic.*

With rā | vīsh'd ēars

The mōn | ārch hears.

Dactylic, sometimes called *Anapaestic*.

Dī | ōgēnēs | sūrlŷ ānd | prōud.

Verses consist of more or fewer of these feet at pleasure; and verses of different lengths intermixed form a *Pindarick* poem.

(e) A *Spondee*, with which Iambic verses abound.

PART V.

Of Figures.

FIGURES are those deviations from grammatical or natural propriety, which are either allowed or admired.

Those which affect English *letters* or *syllables*, and which may therefore be termed *Orthographical figures*, are *Aphæresis*, when a syllable or letter is omitted at the beginning of a word; as *'tis*, for *it is*; *Syncope*, when it is left out in the middle; as *ne'er*, for *never*; and *Apocope*, when omitted at the end; as *tho'*, for *though*.

The omission of a word necessary to grammatical propriety, is called *Ellipsis*; as *I wish you would write*, for *I wish that you would write*.

Particles, and some other words, must frequently be supplied to make the construction complete; as in the following sentences. *I value it not a* (or of *a*) *farthing*; i. e. *at the price of a farthing*: *at twelve o'clock*; i. e. *of the clock*.

The

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The pronoun relative is frequently omitted; as, *The house I have built*; instead of saying, *The house that, or which, I have built*. To make very frequent use of this ellipsis seems to be a fault.

With respect to the *use of figures* it is observed, that the *orthographical figures* are not used with approbation, except in very *familiar writing, or verse*.

AN



A N

A P P E N D I X,

Containing a Catalogue of Verbs
irregularly inflected.

THAT I might not crowd the notes too much, I have chosen to throw into an Appendix, *a catalogue of verbs irregularly inflected*, excluding those verbs, and parts of verbs, which are become obsolete; that learners may be at no loss what form of expression to prefer. It is extracted chiefly from Mr. *Ward's* catalogue; but without taking any notice of his distinction of conjugations. When the regular inflection is in use, as well as the irregular one, an asterism is put.

<i>Radical form.</i>	<i>Preter tense.</i>	<i>Participle pret.</i>
arise.	arose.	arisen.
awake.	awoke.*	awoke.*
bear, or bring forth }	bare.	born.
bear, or carry.	bore.	borne.
		beat.

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Radical form. Preter tense. Participle pret.

beat.	beat.	beaten.
begin.	began.	begun.
bereave.	bereft.*	bereft.*
beseech.	befought.	befought.*
bid.	bade.	bidden.
bind.	bound.	bound.
bite.	bit.	bitten.
blow.	blew.	blown.
bleed.	bled.	bled.
break.	brake.	broken, broke
breed.	bred.	bred.
bring.	brought.	brought.
burst.	burst.	burst, bursten.
buy.	bought.	bought.
cast.	cast.	cast.
catch.	caught.*	caught.*
chide.	chid.	chidden.
chuse.	chose.	chosen.
cleave.	clave.	cloven, cleft.
cling.	clung.	clung.
clothe.	clad.*	clad.*
come.	came.	come.
cost.	cost.	cost.
crew.	crew.	crowed.
cut.	cut.	cut.
dare.	durst.*	dared.
die.	died.	dead.
dig.	dug.*	dug.*
draw.	drew.	drawn.
		drink

VERBS irregularly inflected. 49

Radical form. Preter tense. Participle pret.

drink.	drank.	drunk.
drive.	drove.	driven.
eat.	ate.	eaten.
fall.	fell.	fallen.
feed.	fed.	fed.
fight.	fought.	fought.
find.	found.	found.
flee.	fled.	fled.
fling.	flung.	flung.
fly.	flew.	flown.
forfake.	forsook.	forfaken.
freeze.	froze.	frozen.
get.	gat, got.	gotten.
give.	gave.	given.
go.	went.	gone.
grind.	ground.	ground.
grow.	grew.	grown.
hang.	hung.*	hung.
hew.	hewed.	hewn.
hide.	hid.	hidden.
hit.	hit.	hit.
hold.	held.	holden, held.
hurt.	hurt.	hurt.
keep.	kept.	kept.
knit.	knitted.	knitted, knit.
know.	knew.	known.
lay.	laid.	laid, lain.
lead.	led.	led.

D

leave.

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Radical form. Preter tense. Participle pret.

leave.	left.	left.
let.	let.	let.
lie.	lay.	lain.
load.	loaded.	loaden, laden*
lose.	lost.	lost.
make.	made.	made.
meet.	met.	met.
mow.	mowed.	mown.*
pay.	paid.	paid.
put.	put.	put.
—	quoth he.	—
read.	read.	read.
rend.	rent.	rent.
ring.	rung, rang.	rung.
rive.	rived.	ripen.
rife.	rose.	risen.
ride.	rode.	ridden.
run.	ran.	run.
faw.	fawed.	fawn.
fee.	faw.	feen.
seek.	fought.	fought.
feethe.	feethed.	fodden.
fell.	fold.	fold.
fend.	sent.	sent.
fet.	fet.	fet.
shake.	shook.	shaken.
shave.	shaved.	shaven.*
shear.	sheared.	shorn.
		shed.

VERBS irregularly inflected. 51

Radical form. Preter tense. Participle pret.

shed.	shed.	shed.
shine.	shone.	shone.*
shoe.	shod.	shod.
shoot.	shot.	shot.
show, shew.	showed, shewed.	shown,* shewn.*
shrink.	shrank, shrunk	shrunk.
shut.	shut.	shut.
sing.	sang.	sung.
sink.	sunk.	sunk.
sit.	sat.	sat.
slay.	slew.	slain.
slide.	slided.	slidden.
slink.	sunk.	sunk.
sling.	sung.	sung.
slit.	slit.	slit.
smite.	smote.	smitten.
sow.	sowed.	sown.*
speak.	spoke.	spoken.
speed.	sped.	sped.
spend.	spent.	spent.
spin.	spun.	spun.
spit.	spat.	spitted.
split.	split.	split.
spread.	spread.	spread.
spring.	sprung, sprang	sprung.
stand.	stood.	stood.
steal.	stole.	stolen.
stick.	stuck.	stuck.

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Radical form. Preter tense. Participle pret.

fting.	ftung.	ftung.
ftink.	ftank.	ftunk.
ftride.	ftrode.	ftridden.
ftrike.	ftruck.	fticken.
fting.	ftrung.	ftung.
ftrive.	ftrove.	ftiven.
ftrow.	ftrowed.	ftrown.
fwear.	fwore, fware.	fworn.
fwear.	fwear.	fwear.
fwell.	fwelled.	fwollen.*
fwim.	fwam.	fwum.
fwing.	fwung.	fwung.
ta	took.	taken.
teach.	taught.	taught.
tear.	tore, tare.	torn.
tell.	told.	told.
think.	thought.	thought.
thrive.	throve.	thruven.
throw.	threw.	thrown.
thrust.	thrust.	thrust.
tread.	trode.	trodden.
wear.	wore.	worn.
weave.	wove.	woven.
weep.	wept.	wept.
win.	won.	won.
wind.	wound.	wound.*
work.	wrought.	wrought.
wring.	wrung.	wrung.
write.	wrote.	written.

That

VERBS irregularly inflected. 53

That this catalogue might be reduced into as small a compass as possible, those irregularities are omitted that have been produced merely by the quick pronunciation of regular preterite tenses and participles; whereby the *ed* is contracted into *t*. But this contraction is not admitted in solemn language, except in verbs which end in *l*, *ll*, or *p*; as *creep*, *crept*; *feel*, *felt*; *dwell*, *dwelt*; though it is sometimes used in words ending in *d*: as *gird*, *girt*; *geld*, *gelt*, &c.

[illegible]

NOTES



NOTES,
AND
OBSERVATIONS,

For the Use of Those
Who have made some Proficiency
in the Language.



NOTES

AND

OBSERVATIONS

For the Use of Those

Who have made some Progress

in the Language

of the French

Notes



Notes *and* Observations,

For the Use of those who have made
some Proficiency in the Language.

SECTION I.

Of the Plural Number of Nouns.

SOMETIMES we find an apostrophe used in the plural number, when the noun ends in a vowel; as *in-amorato's, toga's, tunica's, Otho's, a set of virtuoso's*. Addison on Medals. *The idea's of the author have been conversant with the faults of other writers.* Swift's Tale of a Tub, p. 55. It is also used, sometimes, when the noun ends in *s*; as, *genius's, caduceus's, Jacobus's*. Addison on Medals, p. 79. But it seems better to add *es* in these cases; as, *rendezvouses*. Hume's History, vol. 7. p. 113.

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Words compounded of *man* have *men* in the plural ; as, *Alderman*, *aldermen*. *Mussulmans*, (Smollett's *Voltaire*, vol. 2. p. 88.) seems aukward.

Words derived from foreign languages often retain their original plural terminations ; as, *Cberubim*, *phaenomena*, *radii*, *beaux*. But when foreign words are completely incorporated into our language, they take English plurals, as *epitomes*. Addison. When words of foreign extraction are, as it were, half incorporated into the language, they sometimes retain their native plurals, and sometimes acquire those of the English. Thus some persons write *criteria*, others *criteria* ; some write *mediums*, and others *media*. Some foreign words both retain their native plurals, and acquire the English, but they are used in different senses. This is the case with the word *index*. We say *indexes* of books, and *indices* of algebraical quantities.

When a noun is compounded of an adjective, which has not entirely coalesced with it into one word, it occasions some difficulty where to place the sign of the plural number ; as in the word *handful*. Some would say *two hands full* ; others, *two*

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two handfals; and Butler, perhaps for the sake of the rhyme, writes *two handful*.

*For of the lower part, two handful,
It had devoured, it was so manful.*

When a name has a title prefixed to it, as *Doctor*, *Miss*, *Master*, &c. the plural termination affects only the latter of the two words; as, *the two Doctor Nettletons*, *the two Miss Thomsons*; tho' a strict analogy would plead for the alteration of the former word, and lead us to say, *the two Doctors Nettleton*, *the two Misses Thomson*: for, if we supplied the ellipsis, we should say, *the two Doctors of the name of Nettleton*; and, *the two young ladies of the name of Thomson*; and I remember to have met with this construction somewhere, either in *Clarissa*, or *Sir Charles Grandison*; but I cannot now recollect the passage.

Many of the words which have no singular number, denote things which consist of two parts, or go by pairs, and therefore are, in some measure, intitled to a plural termination; as, *lungs*, *bellows*, *breeches*. The word *pair* is generally used with many of them; as, *a pair of compasses*, *a pair of drawers*, *a pair of colours*, &c. Also many of these words denote things which consist of many parts, and therefore are, in the
strictest

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strictest sense, plurals ; as *grains, annals, oats, mallows*, and other plants ; *ashes, embers, filings, vitals, batches, cloaths, &c.* But others are not easily reduced to this rule, and no reason can be given why the things might not have been expressed by words of the singular number ; as, *calends, nones, ides, riches, odds, shambles, thanks, tidings, wages, victuals*, and things that have only quantity, and do not exist in distinct parts ; as, *the grounds of liquors, beastings, assets, &c.*

Many of the words which have no singular termination, are the names of sciences ; as, *ethics, mathematics, belles lettres, &c.* Many of them are the names of games ; as *billiards, fives, &c.* Many of them, also, are the names of diseases ; as the *measles, histerics, glanders, &c.* And some, in imitation of the Greek and Latin, are the names of festivals, and other stated times ; as *orgies, matins, vespers, &c.*

Some of these words have a singular termination in use, but it is applied in a different sense ; as *arms*, for weapons, and an *arm* of the body ; a pair of *colours* belonging to the army, good *manners*, a person's *goods*, good *graces*, a soldier's *quarters*, a man's *bettors, hangings, doings.* *And of their doings great dislike declared.*
Milton.

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Milton. Some words are also found in the singular, but more generally in the plural; as *first fruits, antipodes, &c.*

To express the singular of any of these words which have only a plural termination in use, we have recourse to a periphrasis; as, *one of the annals, one of the grains, one of the pleiades, &c.*

Tradesmen say *one pound, twenty pound, &c.* And the same rule they observe with respect to all weights and measures. Also a gentleman will always say, *how many carp, or how many tench, &c.* have you, and never *how many carps, or how many tenches, &c.* This may be said to be ungrammatical; or, at least, a very harsh ellipsis; but custom authorizes it, and many more departures from strict grammar, particularly in conversation. Sometimes writers have adopted this colloquial form of speech. *He is said to have shot, with his own hands, fifty brace of pheasants.* Addison. *When Innocent the 11th desired the Marquis de Eastres to furnish thirty thousand head of swine, he could not spare them, but thirty thousand lawyers he had at his service.* Addison. *A fleet of thirty-nine sail.* Hume's Hist. vol. 3. p. 448.

Many words, however, in the singular number, seem to be used in the plural
con-

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construction ; when, perhaps, the supplying of an ellipsis would make it pretty easy. *The Queen dowager became more averse to all alliance with a nation, who had departed so far from all ancient principles.* Hume's Hist. vol. 4. p. 833. i. e. *all kinds of alliance.* Thus we say, *a thousand horse, or foot* ; meaning a thousand of the troops that fight on foot, or with a horse. *They are a good apple,* i. e. they are of a good species of the fruit called *an apple.* And thus, also, perhaps, may some of the examples in the former paragraph be analyzed.

Names of mental qualities seldom have any plurals, yet when particular acts and not general habits are meant, the plural number sometimes occurs ; as *insolences.* Hume's Hist. vol. 7. p. 411. but it seems better to have recourse to a periphrasis in this case. In things of an intellectual nature, the singular number will often suffice, even when the things spoken of are mentioned as belonging to a number of persons ; but if the things be corporeal, though they be used in a figurative sense, the plural number seems to be required. Thus we say, *their design, their intention,* and perhaps, *their heart* ; but not *their head,* or *their mouth.* *This people draws*
nigh

PLURAL NUMBER. 63

nigh unto me with their mouth, and honours me with their lips, but their heart is far from me. Matthew. Ferdinand designed to wrest from the Venetians some towns, which his predecessor had consigned to their hand. Hume's Hist. vol. 3. p. 438.

Words that do not admit of a plural, on account of their being of an intellectual nature, are easily applied to a number of persons. Thus we say, *the courage of an army, or the courage of a thousand men*; though each man, separately taken, be supposed to have courage. In these cases, if we take away the abstract and intellectual term, and substitute another, which is particular and corporeal, we must change the number, though the construction and meaning of the sentence be the same. *The enmity of Francis the first, and Charles the fifth, subsisted between their posterity for several ages.* Robertson's Hist. of Scotland, vol. 1. p. 74. If the author had not used the word *posterity*, which is in the singular number, he must have said *children, or sons, or descendants*, in the plural.

There are many words which, in general, have no plurals, as *wool, wheat, &c.* which people who are much conversant with the things which they signify, and who

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who have occasion to make more distinctions among them, use in the plural number, and sometimes those plurals get into writing. *The coarser wools have their uses also.* Preceptor, vol. 2. p. 435. Yet when nouns, which have usually no plurals, are used in that number, the effect is very disagreeable. *But one of the principal foods used by the inhabitants is cheese.* Ulloa's Voyage, vol. 1. p. 304. This construction might easily have been avoided by a periphrasis; as, *but one of the principal kinds of food, &c.*

The word *means* belongs to the class of words which do not change their termination on account of number; for it is used alike in both numbers. *Lest this means should fail.* Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 65. Some persons, however, use the singular of this word, and would say, *lest this mean should fail*, and Dr. Lowth pleads for it; but custom has so formed our ears, that they do not easily admit this form of the word, notwithstanding it is more agreeable to the general analogy of the language.

The word *pains* is also used in the singular number; *No pains is taken; Great pains has been taken.* Pope. But both this, and the word *means*, are also used as plurals.

The

PLURAL NUMBER. 65

The word *news* is also used both in the singular and plural number. *Pray, Sir, are there any news of his intimate friend and confident Darmin.* Smollet's *Voltaire*, vol. 18. p. 131. *News were brought to the Queen.* Hume's *History*, vol. 4. p. 426. *Are there any news at present stirring in London.* *English Merchant*, p. 7. But notwithstanding those authorities, the singular number seems to be more common, and is therefore to be preferred.

The word *billet-doux* is also used in both numbers. *Her eyes first opened on a billet-doux.* Pope's *Rape of the Lock*.—*Will be carrying about billet-doux.* *Arbuthnot*.

In some cases we find two plurals in use. The word *brother* is an example of this; for we both say *brothers*, and *brethren*; but the former is used of natural relations, and the other in a figurative sense; as, *men and brethren*. The word *die*, which makes *dice* when it relates to gaming, makes *dies*, in the plural number, when it relates to coin. The word *cow* formerly had *kine* in the plural number, but we now say *cows*. The word *Sir* has hardly any plural, except in very solemn style, borrowed from the old use
of

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of it; as, Oh, Sirs, *what shall I do to be saved.* Acts.

Both the word *folk*, and *folks* seem to be used promiscuously, especially in conversation; as when we say, *where are the good folks*, or *folk*; but the latter seems to be preferable, as the word in the singular form implies a number.

Proper names admit of a plural number, where they are figuratively used for common names. *It is not enough to have Vitruviuses, we must also have Augustuses, to employ them.* Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 9. p. 27.

It is indifferent, in some cases, whether we use a word in the singular, or in the plural number. Thus we say *in hopes*, or *in hope*, and in the very same sense. *His old instructor, imagining that he had now made himself acquainted with his disease of mind, was in hope of curing it.* Roscius, vol. 1. p. 16. *They went their ways.* Matthew. We should now say, *went their way*; but, in the Yorkshire dialect, it is still, *went their ways.* *The last Pope was at considerable charges.* Addison. *Notwithstanding the ravages of these two insatiable enemies, their numbers can hardly be imagined.* Ulloa's voyage, vol. 4. p. 202.

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p. 202. *Their number* would express the whole idea, but perhaps not with the same emphasis. The singular number would have been better than the plural, in the following sentence,—*putting our minds into the disposals of others.* Locke.

SECTION II.

Of the Genitive Case, and other Inflections of Nouns.

IT may seem improper to call the *Nominative* a case (i. e. *casus*, *five inflectio*) which is the root from whence other cases are derived; but the practice of all Grammarians, and the long established definition of terms, authorize this deviation from rigid exactness.

The [*f*] at the end of a word, doth not change into [*v*] for the genitive case, as it doth in the plural number. We say *a wife's fortune*; but, *he takes more wives than one.*

The *apostrophe* denotes the omission of an [*i*] which was formerly inserted, and made an addition of a syllable to the word.

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word.— Mr. *Pope*, and some of his contemporaries, to avoid a harshness in the pronunciation of some genitives, wrote the word [*his*] at the end of the word; as *Statius his Thebais*, *Socrates his fetters* (Spect.) imagining the [*s*] to be a contraction for that pronoun: But analogy easily overturns that supposition; for *Venus his beauty*, or *Men his wit*, were absurd.

The genitive necessarily occasions the addition of a syllable to words ending in [*s*], and the other terminations which have the same effect in the plural number; as *Venus's beauty*, *Moses's rod*. Sometimes the additional [*s*] is suppressed in writing, and nothing but the apostrophe remains. *And cast him down at Jesus's feet*. But this is more common with poets, when the additional syllable would have been more than their verse required.

Sometimes the apostrophe is wholly omitted, even after the plural number; tho', in that case, there is no other sign of the genitive case. *A collection of writers faults*. Swift's Tale of a Tub, p. 55. *After ten years wars*. Swift.

When, in this and other cases, the terminations of words are such, that the sound makes no distinction between the genitive
of

GENITIVE CASE. 69

of the singular and of the plural number; as, *the prince's injuries*, and *princes' injuries*. Hume's Hist, vol. 5. p. 406. It should seem to be better to decline the use of the genitive in the plural number, and say, *the injuries of princes*.

The English genitive has often a very harsh sound, so that, in imitation of the French, we daily make more use of the particle, *of*, as they do of *de*, to express the same relation. There is something awkward in the following sentences, in which this method has not been taken. *The general, in the army's name, published a declaration.* Hume. *The Commons' vote.* Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 217. *The Lords' house.* Id. *Unless he be very ignorant of the kingdom's condition.* Swift. It were certainly better to say, *In the name of the army, the votes of the Commons, the house of Lords, the condition of the kingdom.* Besides, *the Lord's house*, which is the same in sound with *the Lords' house*, is an expression almost appropriated to a place set apart for christian worship.

When an entire clause of a sentence, beginning with a participle of the present tense, is used as one name, or to express one idea, or circumstance, the noun on which it depends may be put in the genitive

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nitive case. Thus, instead of saying, *What is the meaning of this lady holding up her train*, i. e. *what is the meaning of the lady in holding up her train*, we may say, *What is the meaning of this lady's holding up her train*; just as we say, *What is the meaning of this lady's dress*, &c. So we may either say, *I remember it being reckoned a great exploit*; or, perhaps more elegantly, *I remember its being reckoned*, &c.

When a name is complex, consisting of more terms than one, the genitive is made by subjoining the [s] to the last of the terms. *For Herodias' sake, his brother Philip's wife*. Matthew. *Lord Feversham the general's tent*. Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 264. This construction, however, often seems to be awkward. It would have been easier and better to have said, *The tent of Lord Feversham the general*, &c. When a term consists of a name, and an office, or any term explanatory of the former, it may occasion some doubt to which of them the sign of the genitive should be annexed, or whether it should be subjoined to them both. Thus, some would say, *I left the parcel at Mr. Smith's the bookseller*; others, *at Mr. Smith the bookseller's*, and perhaps others, *at Mr. Smith's the bookseller's*. The last of these forms

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forms is most agreeable to the Latin idiom, but the first seems to be more natural in ours ; and if the addition consist of two or more words, the case seems to be very clear ; as, *I left the parcel at Mr. Smith's the bookseller and stationer, i. e. at Mr. Smith's*, who is a bookseller and stationer, tho' the relative does not easily follow a genitive case.

It is by no means elegant to use two English genitives in construction with the same noun. *He summoned an assembly of bishops and abbots, whom he acquainted with the pope's and the king's pleasure.* Hume's History, vol. 2. p. 177. *The pleasure of the pope, and the king*, would have been better.

In some cases we use both the genitive and the preposition *of* ; as, *this book of my friend's*. Sometimes, indeed, this method is quite necessary, in order to distinguish the sense, and to give the idea of property, strictly so called, which is the most important of the relations expressed by a genitive case. *This picture of my friend*, and *this picture of my friend's*, suggest very different ideas. The latter only is that of property in the strictest sense. Where this double genitive, as it may be called, is not necessary to distinguish the sense,
and

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and especially in grave style, it is generally omitted. Thus we say, *It is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton*, tho' it would not have been improper, only more familiar, to say, *It is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's*. That this double genitive is sufficiently agreeable to the analogy of the English language, is evident from the usual conjunction of the pronoun possessive with the preposition *of*, both of which have the force of a genitive. *This exactness of his*. Tristram Shandy, vol. 1. p. 12. In reality, this double genitive may be resolved into two; for, *this is a book of my friend's*, is the same as, *this is one of the books of my friend*.

The English modification of a word, to express the feminine gender, extends not to many words in our language, and the analogy fails when we should most expect it would be kept up. Thus we do not call a female author, an *authoress*; and if a lady write poems, she is now-a-days called a *poet*, rather than a *poetess*, which is almost obsolete.

A few of our feminine terminations are Latin, with little or no variation, as *administrator*, *administratrix*; *director*, *directrix*; *hero*, *heroine*.

The

The masculine gender is sometimes expressed by prefixing words which are known to be the names of males; as, a *dog-fox*, *jack-ass*, &c. but generally the masculine is denoted by *he*, and the feminine by *she*; as, *he-fox*, *she-fox*.

SECTION III.

Of Adjectives.

THE adjective *enough* may be said to have a plural in our language; for we say *enough* with respect to quantity, which is singular; and *enow* with respect to number, which is plural. *I think there are at Rome enow modern works of architecture.* Addison. *There are enow of zealots of both sides.* Hume's Essays, p. 32.

The word *every* is by some writers transposed, and connected with the personal pronouns, in a manner that seems to sound harsh to an English ear.

Palmira, thou command'st my every thought, i. e. all my thoughts. Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 25. pag. 82.

E

My

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*My ev'ry thought, my ev'ry hope is fix'd
On him alone.* Ib. vol. 18. p. 10.

*The which conduct, throughout every, its
minutest energy.* Harris's three Treatises, p. 189.

Some adjectives of number are more easily converted into substantives than others. Thus we more easily say *a million of men*, than *a thousand of men*. On the other hand, it will hardly be admitted to say *a million men*; whereas *a thousand men* is quite familiar. Yet, in the plural number, a different construction seems to be required. We say *some hundreds*, or *thousands*, as well as *millions of men*. Perhaps, on this account, the words *million*, *hundreds*, and *thousands* will be said to be substantives.

In numbering we often reckon by twenties, calling them *scores*; as *three score*, *four score*, tho' we never say *two score*.

In some few cases we seem, after the manner of the Greeks, to make the adjective agree with the subject of the affirmation; when, in strictness, it belongs to some other word in the sentence; as, *you had better do it*; for, *it would be better for you to do it*.

An adjective and a substantive are both united in the word *aught*, put for *any thing*,
and

and *naught* put for *nothing*. For *aught* which to me appears contrary. Harris's three Treatises, p. 21. *Naught* was wanting. Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 5. These contractions, however, are but little used, and are hardly to be approved of.

The word *lesser*, though condemned by Mr. Johnson, and other English grammarians, is often used by good writers. *The greater number frequently fly before the lesser*. Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 1. p. 172. *The kings of France were the chief of several greater vassals, by whom they were very ill obeyed, and of a greater number of lesser ones*. Ib. vol. 6. p. 172.

Sometimes the comparative of *late* is written *latter*, as well as *later*; and, I think, we use those two comparatives in different senses. The *latter of two*, I fancy, refers either to place or time, whereas *later* respects time only.

In several adjectives the termination *most* is used to express the superlative degree; as, *hindermost*, or *hindmost*; *hithermost* (almost obsolete); *uppermost*, *undermost*, *nethermost*, *innermost*, *outermost*, *uttermost* or *utmost*. Some of these have no comparatives, or positives, or none that are adjectives.

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The adjective *old* is compared two ways. We both say *older*, and *oldest*; and likewise, *elder*, and *eldest*; but use seems to have assigned to them different acceptations; for *elder*, and *eldest* seem to refer to priority of rank or privilege, in consequence of age; whereas *older* and *oldest*, respect the number of years only. Speaking of two very old persons, we should naturally say, that one of them was the *older of the two*; but speaking of two brothers, with respect to the right of inheritance, we should say, that one of them was *the elder of the two*.

Several adverbs are used, in an elegant manner, to answer the purpose of degrees of comparison. There is great beauty in the use of the word *rather*, to express a small degree, or excess of a quality. *She is rather profuse in her expences.* Critical Review, No. 90. p. 43.

The word *full* is likewise used to express a small excess of any quality. Thus we say, *The tea is full weak*, or *full strong*; but this is only a colloquial phrase.

The preposition *with* is also sometimes used in conversation, to express a degree of quality something less than the greatest; as, *They are with the wisest.*

Some times

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Sometimes comparatives are used in a sense merely positive, so that it may occasion a little surprize to find them used in a sense strictly comparative; as the phrase *wiser and better* in the following sentence. *It is a glorious privilege, and he who practices it, may grow wiser and better by an hour's serious meditation, than by a month's reading.* Female American, vol. 1. p. 103.

There are some *Diffyllables* which would not admit the termination [er] or [est] without a harshness in the pronounciation. It is, therefore, usual to compare them in the same manner as *Polysyllables*, without any change of termination. Of these, Mr. Johnson has given us the following enumeration; viz. such as terminate in,

<i>some</i> , as <i>fulsome</i> .	<i>ive</i> , as <i>massive</i> .
<i>ful</i> , as <i>careful</i> .	<i>dy</i> , as <i>woody</i> .
<i>ing</i> , as <i>trifling</i> .	<i>fy</i> , as <i>puffy</i> .
<i>ous</i> , as <i>porous</i> .	<i>ky</i> , as <i>rocky</i> ; except
<i>less</i> , as <i>careless</i> .	<i>lucky</i> .
<i>ed</i> , as <i>wretched</i> .	<i>my</i> , as <i>roomy</i> .
<i>id</i> , as <i>candid</i> .	<i>ny</i> , as <i>skinny</i> .
<i>al</i> , as <i>mortal</i> .	<i>py</i> , as <i>ropy</i> ; except
<i>ent</i> , as <i>recent</i> .	<i>happy</i> .
<i>ain</i> , as <i>certain</i> .	<i>ry</i> , as <i>hoary</i> .

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Some adjectives do not, in their own nature, and by reason of their signification, admit of comparison; such as *universal*, *perfect*, &c. yet it is not uncommon to see the comparative or superlative of such words; being used, either thro' inadvertency, or for the sake of emphasis. *He sometimes claims admission to the chiefest officers of the army.* Clarendon. *The quarrel was become so universal and national.* Hume's History, vol. 1. p. 258. *A method of attaining the rightest and greatest happiness.* Price.

There is still a greater impropriety in a double comparative, or a double superlative. Dr. Lowth thinks there is a singular propriety in the phrase *most highest*, which is peculiar to the old translation of the psalms. But I own it offends my ears, which may, perhaps, be owing to my not having been accustomed to that translation.

It is very common to see the superlative used for the comparative degree, when only two persons or things are spoken of. *It began to be the interest of their neighbours, to oppose the strongest and most enterprising of the two.* Bolingbroke on History, vol. 1. p. 231. This is a very pardonable oversight,

In

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In conversation, I do not say the most polite, we sometimes hear the word *only*, which is a diminutive, joined to the superlative degree; as, *He is only the cleverest fellow I ever saw*. Originally, this form of expression might have been designed to express ridicule, or contempt for a person who had undervalued another. It is now used, when no reply is made to any thing said before, but in an affected, ostentatious way of speaking.

In some cases we find substantives, without any alteration, used for adjectives, *In the flux condition of human affairs*. *Bolingbroke on History*, vol. i. p. 199. *A muslin flounce, made very full, would give a very agreeable flirtation air*. *Pope*. *Chance companions*. Of this kind are, *an alabaster column, a silver tankard, a grammar school*, and most other compound nouns.

English writers, agreeable to the well-known idiom of the language, generally write *Scottish*, just as we say *Spanish, Irish, &c.* and sometimes it is contracted into *Scotch*; but *Mr. Hume* always uses the substantive *Scots* instead of it. *The Scots commissioners*. *History*, vol. 3. p. 379.

The substantive *plenty*, is frequently used for the adjective *plentiful*. *In the reign of Henry the 2d, all foreign commodities*

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dities were plenty in England. Postlethwaite on Commerce, p. 414. i. e. were plentiful, or in plenty.

Names of towns and places, by the same kind of ellipsis, are very often used for adjectives. Thus we speak of *our London, or Jamaica friends*; i. e. meaning our friends in London or Jamaica.

When the name of a country cannot easily be transformed into an adjective, it seems the best to make use of the preposition *of*. *The noblemen of Bretaine* would, I think, be better than the *Bretaine noblemen*. Hume's History, vol. 2. p. 433.

The word *friends* is used as an adjective in the phrase, *Will you be friends with me*. Persian Tales, vol. 2. p. 248. i. e. friendly, or in friendship with me.

Adjectives are often put for adverbs, but the practice is hardly to be approved, except in cases where long custom has made the examples quite easy; as, *exceeding* for *exceedingly*, *near* for *nearly*. *Our wealth being near finished*. Harris's three Treatises, p. 43. The following examples are not so easy. *The people are miserable poor, and subsist on fish. Extreme jealous*. Hume's Essays, p. 11. The word *exceeding* makes a worse adjective than it does

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does an adverb. *I was taking a view of Westminster-abbey, with an old gentleman of exceeding honesty, but the same degree of understanding, as that I have described.* Shenstone's Works, vol. 2. p. 45.

Like seems to be put for *likely*, in the following sentence: *What the consequences of this management are like to be; i.e. what they are likely to be, or what they are, according to all probability, to be.*

SECTION IV.

Of Pronouns.

I. *Of Pronouns in general.*

IT might not have been improper to have classed all the *Pronouns* under the heads of *Substantives* or *Adjectives*; the *personal* pronouns being of the former kind, and all the other denominations of the latter. The reason why they are considered separately is, because there is something particular in their inflections. By this means, therefore, the rules relating to *substantives* and *adjectives* in general, are

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rendered more simple, and a more distinct view is given of the irregular inflections of those words which have been usually called *Pronouns*.

I, is called the *first* person; *Thou*, the *second*; and *He*, *She*, or *It*, the *third* person.

By the complaisance of modern times, we use the plural *you* instead of the singular *thou*, when we mean to speak respectfully to any person; but we do not use *ye* in this manner. We say *you*, not *ye*, *are reading*. However, in very solemn style, and particularly in an address to the Divine Being, we use *thou*, and not *you*.

In speaking to children, we sometimes use the third person singular, instead of the second; as, *will he*, or *she* do it. The Germans use the third person plural, when they speak the most respectfully.

The pronouns *you*, and *your* are sometimes used with little regard to their proper meaning; for the speaker has just as much interest in the case as those he addresses. This style is ostentatious, and doth not suit grave writing. *Not only your men of more refined and solid parts and learning, but even your alchymist, and your fortune-teller, will discover the secrets of their art in Homer and Virgil.* Addison on Medals, p. 32.

For

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For want of a sufficient variety of personal pronouns of the third person, we are often obliged, in a complex sentence, to have recourse to explanations which cannot be introduced without appearing very aukward. *Perigrine spoke not a word in answer to this declaration, which he immediately imputed to the ill offices of the minister against whom he breathed defiance and revenge, in his way to the lodgings of Cadwalader; who, being made acquainted with the manner of his reception, begged he would desist from all schemes of vengeance, until he (Crabtree) should be able to unriddle the mystery of the whole.* Perigrine Pickle, vol. 4. p. 129. *In consequence of this retreat he, (the husband) was disabled from paying a considerable sum.* Ib. p. 242.

Aukward as this construction is, it were to be wished, that historians had made more use of it; as, at least, they would have been more intelligible than they sometimes are without it. *They [meaning the French] marched precipitately, as to an assured victory; whereas the English advanced very slowly, and discharged such flights of arrows, as did great execution. When they drew near, the archers, perceiving that they were out of breath, charged them with great vigour.* Universal Hist. vol.

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vol. 23. p. 517. If an attention to the sense, in these cases, would relieve the ambiguity, yet the attention it requires is painful, and difficult to be kept up.

The pronoun *it* is sometimes used at the same time with the word for which it might have been substituted, and even precedes it; tho' such a word is generally called the antecedent of the pronoun. *It is our duty to do to others as we would that they should do to us.* If this complex antecedent, which is the proper nominative case to the verb *is*, be made to precede that verb, the pronoun will be superfluous, and the sentence will read thus, *To do to others, as we would that they should do to us, is our duty.*

This construction of the pronoun *it* is so common, and we so naturally expect the antecedent to follow it, or to be understood after it; that when the antecedent comes regularly before it, as before any other pronoun, the sense is, sometimes, in danger of being mistaken. *Who* [meaning the king] *notwithstanding he relates, that the prudent foresight of the commons had cut off all the means, whereby Charles could procure money, those nerves of power, without which, it is impossible to exist.* Macaulay's History, vol. 3. p. 2. The phrase,

phrase, *it is impossible to exist*, gives us the idea of its being impossible for men, or any body to exist; whereas, *power* is the thing that the author meant could not exist without money.

Sometimes the true antecedent of this pronoun is so concealed in other words, that it requires some attention to discover it. *How far do you call it to such a place? You will have it to be three miles.* That is, *how great a distance do you call it? You will have the distance to be three miles.*

Not only things, but persons may be the antecedent to this pronoun. *Who is it? Is it not Thomas? i. e. Who is the person? Is not he Thomas?*

Sometimes, in imitation of the French, this pronoun may be used for a person in another manner; by being substituted for *he*. *What a desperate fellow it is.* But this is only in conversation, and familiar style.

In one very odd phrase, which also occurs in conversation, especially in some counties of England, the pronoun *it* is put in the place of a personal pronoun, and the personal pronoun in the place of it. *He put him into the head of it. It is upon a subject perfectly new, and those dogs there put me into the head of it.* Pompey

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pey the Little, p. 246. in ridicule of the phrase.

Sometimes this same pronoun connects so closely with the verb, that it seems only to modify its meaning, and not to have any separate signification of its own. *The king carried it with a high band.* Parliamentary History, vol. i. p. 14. i. e. *the king behaved with haughtiness.*

If there be any antecedent in some such phrases as these, it is such a complex idea, that I do not think it is possible to give a precise definition of it. I shall subjoin a curious example of this. *Let me beg of you, like an unbacked filly, to frisk it, to squirt it, to jump it, to rear it, to bound it, and to kick it, with long kicks and short kicks, till you break the strap or a crupper, and throw his worship into the dirt.* Tristram Shandy, vol. 3. p. 167.

The pronouns *possessive* [indicating *property* or *possession*] might not improperly have been called the *genitive* cases of their corresponding *personal* pronouns, were it not that their formation is not analogous to that of the *genitive* cases of other words.

Sometimes these possessives have an apostrophe before the *s*, when they are found without their substantives, which gives them

them more the appearance of a genitive case. *That you may call her your's.* Fair American, vol. 2. p. 64.

Formerly, *mine* and *thine* were used instead of *my* and *thy* before a vowel. They are generally retained in our present English version of the Bible; and, perhaps, for this reason, give a peculiar solemnity to the style. *By the greatness of thine arm.* Exodus, ch. 15. ver. 16. *And bring them to thine everlasting kingdom.* Common Prayer.

The pronoun *his* was not always confined to persons, but was formerly applied to things also. *This rule is not so general, but that it admitteth his exceptions.* Carew.

For want of a sufficient variety of personal pronouns of the third person, and their possessives, our language labours under an ambiguity, which is unknown in most others. *The eagle killed the hen, and eat her in her own nest. He sent him to kill his own father.* Nothing but the sense of the preceding sentences can determine what nest, the *hen's*, or the *eagle's*, is meant in the former of these examples; or whose father, his that gave the order, or his that was to execute it, in the latter.

Sometimes

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Sometimes these pronouns possessive do not strictly imply property, and on this account occasion an ambiguity in a sentence. *But is it possible I should not grieve for his loss?* Fair American, vol. I. p. 38. Meaning the loss of her father, who was dead; but the meaning might have been a loss which her father had sustained.

According to the English idiom, we generally prefix the pronoun *my* to the title of *Lord*; as *my Lord Bedford*, but this style seems to imply some degree of familiarity; and persons who pretend not to any sort of intimacy with the nobility, do not commonly use it. Indeed it seems proper to the style of a king, whose Lords they originally were, and whose manner it is to say, *my subjects, my kingdom, my Lords and gentlemen, my ships, my army, &c.* Foreigners often confound this pronoun with the word *Lord*, as if they made but one word; as, *a mylord*.

When the relative is preceded by two personal pronouns, as antecedents, it may, in some cases, relate to the former, and in others to the latter of them, according as the sense may point out its reference, but it is generally the latter that is referred to; as, *I am he that liveth, and was dead*; where the antecedent of *that* is *he*,

be, which immediately precedes it; *be that liveth* being considered as one idea, or character, to which the person intended by *I* answers. Yet, *I am be, that live, and was dead*, could hardly be condemned, if it be considered, who it is that liveth, viz. *I*.

When the relative follows two nouns, connected by the particle *of*, it is absolutely impossible to say, to which of them it refers; because the custom of the language has made it equally applicable to either of them. When we say, *the disciples of Christ, whom we imitate*, we may mean the imitation either of Christ, or of his disciples. Here we find the want of a distinction of numbers, in the pronoun relative.

When the words are separated by other prepositions, there is, sometimes, the same ambiguity. *He was taking a view, from a window of St. Chad's cathedral, in Litchfield, where [i. e. in which] a party of the royalists had fortified themselves.* Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 449. Quere, was it in the cathedral, or in the town, that the party of the royalists were fortified?

The pronouns *Relative* and *Demonstrative* are nearly allied; every pronoun *demonstrative*,

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monstrative, when not immediately preceding a substantive, referring to an *antecedent* one; as also do the *possessives*: And, being all of the nature of *adjectives*, it is impossible it should be otherwise.

The pronouns *demonstrative* are so called, because when we make use of them we, as it were, *point out* the thing that we speak of; for such is the import of the word [*demonstro*] from which the term is derived.

The demonstrative *this* refers to the nearer, or the last mentioned particular, and *that* to the more remote, or the first mentioned. *More rain falls in June and July, than in December and January; but it makes a much greater show upon the earth in these than in those; because it lies longer upon it.* Woodward.

The pronoun *this*, or *those*, without the relative and verb substantive; but ill supplies the place of a noun substantive, which ought to be its antecedent. *The land was always possessed, during pleasure, by those intrusted with the command.* Hume's History, vol. 5. p. 109. i. e. *those persons intrusted, or those who were intrusted.* *All those possessed of any office resigned their former commission.* Hume's History, vol. 4. p. 304.

Many

Many persons are apt, in conversation, to put the oblique case of the personal pronouns, in the place of *these* and *those*; as, *Give me them books*, instead of *those books*. We may, sometimes, find this fault even in writing. *Observe them three there*. Devil upon Crutches.

It is not, however, always easy to say, whether a personal pronoun or a demonstrative is preferable in certain constructions. *We are not unacquainted with the calumny of them [or those] who openly make use of the warmest professions*. Preceptor, vol. 2. p. 429.

The demonstrative *that*, is sometimes used very emphatically for *so much*. *But the circulation of things, occasioned by commerce, is not of that moment as the transplantation, which human nature itself has undergone*. Spirit of Nations, p. 22.

Sometimes this same pronoun is elegantly used for *so great*, or *such a*. *Some of them have gone to that height of extravagance, as to assert, that that performance had been immediately dictated by the holy ghost*. Hume's History, vol. 5. p. 288. *It must reasonably appear doubtful, whether human society could ever arrive at that state of perfection, as to support itself with no other control, than the general and rigid maxims*
of

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of law and equity. Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 317. In all these cases, however, it should seem, that the common construction is generally preferable.

Sometimes this pronoun is introduced in the latter part of a sentence; where it is superfluous with respect to the grammar, and where it has no direct antecedent; but where it is of considerable use in point of emphasis. *By what arguments he could engage the French to offer such an insult to the Spanish nation, from whom he met with such generous treatment; by what colours he could disguise the ingratitude, and impudence of such a measure; these are wholly unknown to us.* Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 59. *As to the precise and definite idea, this may be still a secret.* Harris's three Treatises, p. 5.

The word *what* is a contraction for *that which*, and therefore should not be used instead of *which* only. *Besides, it happens, with regard to ambitious aims and projects, what may be observed with regard to sects of philosophy and religion.* Hume's Essays, p. 74. This sentence can no otherwise be reduced to sufficient correctness than by reading, *it happens—which.* *I would not willingly insist upon it as an advantage, in our European customs, what was observed*

observed by Mahomet Effendi, the last Turkish ambassador in France. Ib. p. 252.

In some dialects, the word *what* is used for *that*; and sometimes we find it in this sense in writing. *Neither Lady Haversham nor Miss Mildmay will ever believe, but what I have been entirely to blame.* Louisa Mildmay, vol. 1. p. 179. *I am not satisfied, but what the integrity of our friends is more essential to our welfare than their knowledge of the world.* Ib. vol. 2. p. 114.

What is sometimes put for *all the*, or words nearly equivalent. *What appearances of worth afterwards succeeded, were drawn from thence.* Internal Policy of Great-Britain, p. 196. i. e. *all the appearances.*

The word *other* seems to be used like an adjective in the comparative degree, requiring *than* after it; but then it should have *a*, *any*, or some word equivalent to the article before it. *Such institutions are too diabolical, to be derived from other than an infernal demon.* Hume's History. vol. 6. p. 24. i. e. *from any other.* *He frequently passed whole days in a hollow tree, without other company, or amusement, than his bible.* Ib. vol. 7. p. 342.

When this pronoun is separated from its substantive, which follows it, by nothing

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thing but the particle *of*, not having the force of a genitive case, or implying possession, but merely explanatory, as it may be called; it may, I think, be doubted, whether the plural *s*, should be added to it, or not. *The sons of Zebedee, and two other of his disciples.* John, ch. 21. v. 2. Some might write, *two others of his disciples*, i. e. *two others, who were his disciples, or among his disciples.*

The word *somewhat*, in the following sentence of Hume, seems to be used improperly. *These punishments seem to have been exercised in somewhat an arbitrary manner.* History, vol. 1. p. 371. Sometimes we read, *in somewhat of*. The meaning is, *in a manner which is, in some respects, arbitrary.*

The word *one* hath also a *pronominal* use, and may then be as properly classed among the *Demonstratives* as *other* and *the same*; as, *He is one that I esteem.* One might make a magazine of all sorts of antiquities. Addison.

We sometimes use the pronoun *one* in the same sense in which *on* is used in French. One would imagine these to be the expressions of a man blessed with ease. Atterbury.

This

This pronoun *one* has a plural number, when it is used without a substantive. *There are many whose waking thoughts are wholly employed in their sleeping ones.* Addison.

I shall here mention a remarkable ambiguity in the use of the word *one*, when it is no pronoun. And it is such as, I think, cannot be avoided, except by a periphrasis, in any language. *I cannot find one of my books.* By these words I may either mean, that all the books are missing, or only one of them; but the tone of voice, with which they are spoken, will easily distinguish in this case.

The word *none* has, generally, the force of a pronoun; as, *Where are the books? I have none of them.* In this case, it seems to be the same word with the adjective *no*; for where *no* is used with the substantive, *none* is used without it: for we say, *I have no books*; or, *I have none.* This word is used in a very peculiar sense. *Israel would none of me. I like none of it.* i. e. would not have me at all; do not like it at all.

Under the article of *Pronouns* the following words and parts of words, that are often joined with pronouns to increase their emphasis, must be taken notice of. By
the

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the addition of *soever*; *who* and *what* become *whosoever* and *whatsoever*. The indeclinable particle *own* added to the possessives makes *my*, *thy*, &c. become *my own*, *thy own*, &c. *Self* and its plural number, *selves*, are added likewise to the *possessives*, and sometimes to the oblique cases of the *personal* pronouns; as *myself*, *yourselves*, *himself*, *themselves*; and, lastly, the article [*a*] joined to the simple pronoun *other*, makes it the compound *another*.

Hisself, and *theirselves*, were formerly used for *himself* and *themselves*. *Every one of us, each for hisself, laboured how to recover him.* Sydney.

Ourself is peculiar to the royal style; for the king only can properly make use of it. *We ourself will follow.* Shakespeare.

II. *Of Pronouns Relative.*

Formerly the words *who* and *which* were used without distinction; but custom hath now appropriated *who* to *persons*, and *which* to *things*.

It is not necessary that the relative *who* have an express personal antecedent. It is sufficient if it be implied in the pronoun possessive; as, *thy goodness who art*, i. e. *the goodness of thee who art*.

This pronoun, however, is so much appropriated to persons, that there is generally harshness in the application of it, except to the proper names of persons, or the general terms, man, woman, &c. A term which only implies the idea of persons, and expresses them by some circumstance or epithet, will hardly authorize the use of it. *That faction in England, who most powerfully opposed his arbitrary pretensions.* Macaulay's History, vol. 3. p. 21: It had better have been *that faction which*, and the same remark will serve for the following examples. *France, who was in alliance with Sweden.* Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 6. p. 187. *The court, who began to study the European more nearly than heretofore.* Ib. vol. 9. p. 141. *The cavalry who.* Ib. p. 227.

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The cities, who aspired at liberty. Ib. vol. 2. p. 32. *That party among us, who boast of the highest regard to liberty, have not possessed sufficient liberty of thought in this particular.* Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 312. *The family, whom, at first, they consider as usurpers.* Hume's Essays, p. 298. If a personification had been intended in these cases, *who* would have been proper; but in the style of history, there can seldom be a propriety in it, at least it cannot be pretended in these instances.

In some cases it may be doubtful whether this pronoun be properly applied or not. *The number of substantial inhabitants with whom some cities abound.* Squire's Anglo-Saxon Government, p. 318. For when a term directly, and necessarily implies persons, it certainly may, in many cases, claim the personal relative. *None of the company, whom he most affected, could cure him of the melancholy under which he laboured.* Female American, vol. 1. p. 52. The word *acquaintance*, may have the same construction.

We hardly consider children as persons, because that term gives us the idea of reason, and reflection; and therefore, the application of the personal relative *who*,
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in this case, seems to be harsh. *A child, who.* Cadogan.

It is still more improperly applied to animals. *A lake, frequented by that fowl, whom nature has taught to dip the wing in water.* Raffles, vol. 1. p. 4.

When the name of a person is used merely as a name, and does not refer to the person; the pronoun *which* ought to be used, and not *who*. *It is no wonder if a man, made up of such contrarieties, did not shine at the court of Queen Elizabeth, who was but another name for prudence, and economy.*

The word *whose* begins likewise to be restricted to persons, but it is not done so generally but that good writers, and even in prose, use it when speaking of things. I do not think, however, that the construction is generally pleasing. *Pleasure, whose nature.* Hume. *Call every production, whose parts exist all at once, and whose nature depends not on a transition for its existence, a work or thing done, and not an energy, or operation.* Harris's Hermes. *A true critic in the perusal of a book, is like a dog at a feast; whose thought and stomach are wholly set upon what the guests fling away.* Swift's Tale of a Tub, p. 63.

In one case, however, custom authorizes us to use *which* with respect to persons; and that is, when we want to distinguish one person of two, or a particular person among a number of others. We should then say, *Which of the two, or which of them, is he or she?*

That is also used as a relative, instead of *who* or *which*; as *the man that [for whom] I loved. The house that [for which] I have built.* In which case it is indeclinable; as *The men that I feared.*

The pronouns *that*, and *who*, or *which*, may often be used promiscuously; but after an adjective, especially in the superlative degree, *who* or *which* cannot be admitted. *The followers of Catiline were the most profligate, which could be called out of the most corrupt city of the universe.* *Rise and Fall of antient Republicks*, p. 282. *Lord Henry Sidney was one of the wisest, and most active governors whom Ireland had enjoyed for several years.* *Hume's History*, vol. 5. p. 415. *The ablest minister whom James ever possessed.* *Ib.* vol. 6. p. 10. In all these cases, *that* should have been used.

The pronoun *that* also follows *the same* more naturally than *who* or *which*. *He is the same man that you saw before.* But if
a pre-

a preposition must precede the relative, there is a kind of necessity to replace *who* or *which*; because the pronoun *that* does not admit of such a construction. *His subjects looked on his fate with the same indifference, to which they saw him totally abandoned.* Hume's History, vol. 2. p. 52.

Who is used in a very peculiar manner in one familiar phrase; as *who shall say*, i. e. as if one, or some person should say.

When, in the first of a series of clauses, the relative *who* has been understood, it is awkward to introduce it towards the end of the sentence. *The Scots, without a head, without union among themselves, attached, all of them, to different competitors, whose title they had, rashly submitted to the decision of this foreign usurper, and who were thereby reduced to an absolute dependence upon him, could only expect by resistance, to intail upon themselves and their posterity, a more grievous, and destructive servitude.* Hume's History, vol. 2. p. 262.

Whatever relative be used, in one of a series of clauses, relating to the same antecedent, the same ought to be used in them all. *It is remarkable, that Holland, against which the war was undertaken, and that, in the very beginning, was reduced to the brink*

brink of destruction, lost nothing. Universal History, vol. 25. p. 117. It ought to have been, *and which in the very beginning.*

III. Of the Oblique Cases of Pronouns.

I prefer the term *oblique case* of Dr. Johnson to *objective case*, which Dr. Lowth uses. By the old grammarians, the nominative case was called *rectus*, being compared to a line standing upright; and all the other cases, being formed by *inflections*, or *bending* from it, were called *oblique*. Now the *objective* case can only stand for the *accusative*, in which the object of an affirmative sentence is put; but *oblique* comprehends other relations, and other cases, in which this form of the pronoun is used; as, *of me, to me. from me.*

Contrary, as it evidently is, to the analogy of the language, the nominative case is sometimes found after verbs and prepositions. It has even crept into writing. *The chaplain intreated my comrade and I to dress as well as possible.* World displayed, vol. 1. p. 163. *He told my Lord and I.* Fair American, vol. 1. p. 141. This awkward construction is constantly observed by the author of this romance. On the

the other hand, he sometimes uses the oblique case instead of the nominative. *My father and him have been very intimate since.* Ib. vol. 2. p. 53. This last is a French construction.

In one familiar phrase, the pronoun *me* seems to be used in the nominative, and, as it were, in the third person too; but the pronoun and the verb make but one word. *Metbinks already I your tears survey.* Pope. The word *metbought* is also used with respect to time past; and even *metthoughts.* *Female Foundling*, vol. 1. p. 30.

The nominative case is used by Shakspeare for the oblique, but it seems to be in a droll humourous way. *To poor we thy enmity is most capital, i. e. to us poor wretches.*

The pronoun *whoever* and *whosoever* have sometimes a double construction, in imitation of the French idiom. *Elizabeth publicly threatned, that she would have the head of whoever had advised it.* Hume. *He offered a great recompence to whomsoever would help him to a sight of him.* Ib.

The pronoun *whoever* seems, sometimes, to require two verbs; and if only one follow, there seems to be a defect in the sentence. *They frequently emit a poisonous*
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juice,

juice, whereof whoever drinks, that person's brain flies out of his nostrils. Swift's Tale of a Tub, p. 60.

All our grammarians say, that the nominative cases of pronouns ought to follow the verb substantive as well as precede it; yet many familiar forms of speech, and the example of some of our best writers, would lead us to make a contrary rule; or, at least, would leave us at liberty to adopt which we liked best. *Are these the houses you were speaking of? Yes, they are them. Who is there? It is me. It is him, &c. It is not me you are in love with.* Addison. *It cannot be me.* Swift. *To that which once was thee.* Prior. *There is but one man that she can have, and that is me.* Clarissa.

When the word *if* begins a sentence, it seems pretty clear, that no person, whose attention to artificial rules did not put a sensible restraint upon his language, would ever use the nominative case after the verb *to be*. Who would not say, *If it be me*, rather than *If it be I*?

The word *become* is a verb neuter, as well as the verb *to be*; and I think that no person, who reads the following sentence, will question the propriety of the use of the oblique case after it. *By imagination*

gination we place ourselves in his situation, we conceive ourselves enduring all the same torments, we enter, as it were, into his body, and become, in some measure, him; and from thence form some idea of his sensations, and even feel something which, tho' weaker in degree, is not altogether unlike them. Smith's Moral Sentiments, p. 2.

It is, likewise, said, that the nominative case ought to follow the preposition *than*; because the verb *to be* is understood after it; As, *You are taller than he*, and not *taller than him*; because, at full length, it would be, *You are taller than he is*; but since it is allowed, that the oblique case should follow prepositions; and since the comparative degree of an adjective, and the particle *than* have, certainly, between them, the force of a preposition, expressing the relation of one word to another, they ought to require the oblique case of the pronoun following; so that *greater than me*, will be more grammatical than *greater than I*. Examples, however, of this construction, occur in very good writers. *The Jesuits had more interest at court than him.* Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 9. p. 141. *Tell the Cardinal that I understand poetry better than him.* Ib. vol. 8. p. 187. *An inhabitant*

inhabitant of Crim Tartary was far more happy than him. Ib. vol. 6. p. 89.

Perhaps these authorities, and the universal propensity which may be perceived in all persons, as well those who have had a learned and polite education, as those who have not, to these forms of speech, may make it at least doubtful, whether they be not agreeable to the true English idiom. It appears to me, that the chief objection our grammarians have to both these forms, is that they are not agreeable to the idiom of the Latin tongue, which is certainly an argument of little weight, as that language is fundamentally different from ours: whereas those forms of expression are perfectly analogous to the French, and other modern European languages. In these the same form of a pronoun is never used both before and after the verb substantive. Thus the French say, *c'est moi, c'est lui*; and not, *c'est je, c'est il*.

Sometimes, in imitation of the French, the English authors use the oblique case for the nominative. *His wealth and him bid adieu to each other.*

In several cases, as in those above-mentioned, the principles of our language are vague, and unsettled. The custom of speaking

speaking draws one way, and an attention to arbitrary and artificial rules another. Which will prevail at last, it is impossible to say. It is not the authority of any one person, or of a few, be they ever so eminent, that can establish one form of speech in preference to another. Nothing but the general practice of good writers, and good speakers can do it.

When the pronoun precedes the verb, or the participle by which its case is determined, it is very common, especially in conversation, to use the nominative case where the rules of grammar require the oblique. As, *Who is this for? Who should I meet the other day but my old friend.* Spectator, No. 32. This form of speaking is so familiar, that I question whether grammarians should not admit it as an exception to the general rule. Dr. Lowth says, that grammar requires us to say, *Whom do you think me to be.* But in conversation we always hear, *Who do you think me to be.*

SECTION V.

*Of Verbs.*I. *Of Verbs in general.*

THERE is a peculiar solemnity in the termination *th* of the third person singular of the present tense of verbs, owing, perhaps, to its being more antient than the termination *s*, which is a corruption of *th*, and which is now become more familiar. *He loveth righteousness, and hateth iniquity. Hath and doth* are, for this reason, more solemn than *has* and *does*.

Some of our later writers, use certain neuter verbs, as if they were transitive, putting after them the oblique case of the pronoun, which was the nominative case to it, agreeable to the French construction of reciprocal verbs; but this custom is so foreign to the idiom of the English tongue, that I think it can never take generally. Repenting him *of his design*. Hume's History, vol. 2. p. 56. *The king soon found reason to repent him of his provoking such dangerous enemies.* Ib. vol. 1. p. 121.
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The popular lords did not fail to enlarge themselves on the subject. Macaulay's History, vol. 3. p. 177. The nearer his military successes approached him to the throne. Hume's History, vol. 5. p. 383.

In the following sentences, on the contrary, there is a want of the reciprocal form, a verb active and transitive being used as a verb neuter. *Providence gives us notice, by sensible declensions, that we may disengage from the world by degrees. Collier. i. e. disengage ourselves.*

On the other hand, verbs neuter are often used as if they were active and transitive, without being used in a reciprocal construction. *Henry knew, that an excommunication could not fail of operating the most dangerous effects. Hume's Hist. vol. 2. p. 165. Bargaining their prince for money. Ib. vol. 7. p. 80. With a view of enterprising some new violence. Ib. p. 387. All causes, with regard to the revenue, are appealed ultimately to the magistrates. Hume's Political Essays, p. 258. A parliament forfeited all those who had borne arms against the king. Hume's Hist. vol. 2. p. 223. The practice of forfeiting ships which had been wrecked. Ib. vol. 1. p. 500.*

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We have one word, which is used as a verb in one single construction, but which is very unlike a verb in other respects; *I had as lief say a thing after him as after another.* Lowth's Answer to Warburton. i. e. *I should as soon chuse to say.* This is a colloquial and familiar phrase, and is not often found in writing. We have several other remarkable contractions for verbs and sentences. *Good, my Lord, consider with yourself, the difficulty of this science.* Law Tracts, vol. 1. p. 121. i. e. *I beg of you, my Lord.* The phrase is not common, and low.

There is something very singular in the use and construction of the verb *ail*. We say, *what ails him, he ails something, or he ails nothing*; but not, *he ails a fever, or a fever ails him.*

It is remarkable, that we have one single instance of a proper imperative mood, in the first person plural; but I believe it is not known except in the Yorkshire dialect. It is *gâ*, which signifies, *let us go, eamus.*

The old verb *behevved* is generally used impersonally, with the pronoun *it* preceding it; but some persons affect to give it a proper nominative case. *In order to reach our globe they [the genii] behoved*
to

to have wings. Smollet's *Voltaire*, vol. 16. p. 156. that is, *it behoved them to have wings.* But as this signal revolution in the criminal law behoved to be galling to individuals, unaccustomed to restrain their passions, all measures were taken to make the yoke easy. Law Tracts, vol. 1. p. 96. that is, were necessarily galling, or could not but be galling. I think this construction, which is by no means English, is peculiar to Scotland.

The verb *irks* is only used impersonally; as, *it irks me*, which is nearly equivalent to *it grieves me*.

In some very familiar forms of speech, the active seems to be put for the passive form of verbs and participles. *I'll teach you all what's owing to your Queen.* Dryden. *The books continue selling*, i. e. *upon the sale*, or *to be sold*. It may be supposed, that this instance is a contracted form of speaking, the word ending in *ing*, being a noun, and the preposition being understood; so we say, *the brass is forging*, i. e. *at the forging*, or *in the act of forging*. But the following sentences are not so easily explained; *They are to blame*, i. e. *to be blamed*. *The books are to bind*, i. e. *to be bound*. In the phrase, *he may be still to seek for a thing*, the sense seems to require, that

that the ellipsis be supplied by reading, *he may still be in a condition to seek it, or in a state of seeking it, i. e. he may not yet have found what he was seeking.*

In some familiar phrases, the subject and object of an affirmation seem to be transposed. We say, *He is well read in history*, when we mean that history is well read by him. *They were asked a question*, i. e. *a question was asked them.* *They were offered twenty shillings*, i. e. *twenty shillings were offered them.* *They were offered a pardon*, i. e. *a pardon was offered to them.* This inversion of the nominative case, as it may be called, may sometimes make a person pause a little, before he finds the true sense of a passage. *During his residence abroad, he had acquired immense riches, and had been left, by a friend, no less than eighty thousand pounds, to take the name of Melmoth.* Louisa Mildmay, vol. 2. p. 222.

When verbs end in *s*, *se*, *ss*, *k*, *p*, and some other letters, the preter tense, and participles, in the manner in which we generally pronounce words in English, end as if the final letter was *t*; but it does not look well to make any abridgment in writing, and much less to spell the word with a *t*. These contractions, however, have often been made by good writers.

Disperst.

Disperst. Hume's History, vol. 3. p. 390. *Distrest.* Ib. vol. 2. p. 224. *Dropt.* Ib. vol. 4. p. 408. *Talkt.* Hume's Essays, p. 295. *Ccheckt.* Ib. p. 297. *Afkt.* Ib. p. 305. *His face stampd upon their coins.* Addison. *Enwrapd in those studies.* Pope, and Arbuthnot. *He past four months.* Rasilas, vol. 1. p. 28. *Heapt up greater honours.* Addison. In verse, this contraction is more allowable; *Rapt into future times, the bard begun.* Pope's Messiah.

The verb *ought* is not enumerated among the auxiliary verbs, because it does not connect with the other verbs, without the intervention of the particle *to*. It is an imperfect verb, for it has no other modification besides this one.

The verb *must*, which was enumerated among the auxiliaries, is equally imperfect, and is likewise of the present tense only. It is, therefore, improperly introduced into a sentence which relates wholly to time past. *Must it not be expected, that the king would defend an authority, which had been exercised without dispute or controversy.* Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 311. The meaning is, *might it not have been expected?*

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The present tense is improperly used with respect to a time, which is mentioned as having a certain limited duration; because the time must be past or future. *I have compassion on the multitude because they continue with me, now, three days.* It should have been, *have continued.* Indeed the verb *have* is appropriated to this very use. *In the treasury belonging to the cathedral in this city is preserved with the greatest veneration, for upwards of six hundred years, a dish, or rather an hexagon bowl, which they pretend to be made of emerald.* Condamine's Travels, p. 15. *It is at Rome, that it is cultivated with the greatest success, and especially for upwards of a century past.* Ib. p. 43. *I remember him these many years.* English Merchant.

An ambiguity is occasioned in our language when the preter tense of one verb happens to be the present tense of another. *I fell a tree now.* *I fell down yesterday,* from the verb *to fall.* *I lay a thing down to day: I lay down yesterday,* from the verb *to lie.*

The termination *est*, annexed to the preter tenses of verbs, is, at best, a very harsh one, when it is contracted, according to our general custom, by throwing out the *e*; as *learnedst*, for *learnedest*; and especially,

especially, if it be again contracted into one syllable, as it is commonly pronounced, and made *learn'dst*. Some forms of the preter tenses, where they are always contracted in the first person, do not admit of any more contraction, or the addition of any more consonants to their terminations; and therefore may be properly enough said to have no second persons singular at all. I believe a writer, or speaker would have recourse to any periphrasis rather than say *keptest*, or *keptst*, which are the only words that can be supposed to be the second persons in the tense *I kept*. Or, in what manner would the termination of the second person be annexed to the word *dreamed*, or, as it is generally pronounced, *dreamt*. Indeed this harsh termination *est* is generally quite dropped in common conversation, and sometimes by the poets, in writing. *Nor thou that flings* (for *flingest*, or *flingst*) *me floundring from thy back*. Frogs and Mice, line 123.

II. *Of the Conjunctive Form of Verbs.*

The word *had* is frequently used instead of *would have*, in which case it has all the force of a conjunctive form of a verb. *He had been Diogenes if he had not been Alexander*, i. e. *would have been*, &c. The verb *had* in this sense precedes its nominative case, and the particle implying doubt or uncertainty is omitted. *Had he done this, he would have escaped*; i. e. *if he had done this*. No landholder would have been at that expence, had he not been sure of the sale of his commodities. Postlethwaite on Commerce, p. 123.

There seems to be a peculiar elegance in a sentenee beginning with the conjunctive form of a verb. *Were there no difference, there would be no choice*. Harris's three treatises, p. 208.

A double conjunctive, in two corresponding clauses of a sentence, is still more elegant. *He had formed one of the most shining characters of his age, had not the extreme narrowness of his genius, in every thing but war, diminished the lustre of his merits*. Hume's History, vol. 7. p. 28. The sentence, in the common form, would not have read near so well. *He would*

would have formed, &c. if the extreme narrowness of his genius, &c. had not, &c. Had the limitations on the prerogative been, in his time, quite fixed, and certain, his integrity had made him regard as sacred, the boundaries of the constitution. Ib. p. 151.

Sometimes the particles expressing supposition are omitted before the conjunctive form of verbs, this form itself sufficiently expressing uncertainty. *Were those letters to fall into the hands of some ingenious persons.* Bolingbroke on History, vol. 1. p. 5. i. e. *If these letters were to fall, &c.*

The conjunctive form may take place after the adverb *perhaps*. *Perhaps it were to be wished, that, in banishing from the pulpit that false taste, whereby it had been so long debased, he had also suppressed the custom of preaching from one text.* Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 9. p. 5.

Mr. Johnson assigns no conjunctive form to the *preter tense*: but the analogy of the language seems to require that both the tenses be put upon a level in this respect.—It seems to be used with propriety only when some degree of *doubt* or *hesitation* is implied; since when an event is looked upon as absolutely certain, though in speaking of it we make use of the conjunctive particles, &c. the usual change
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of terminations is retained: to give a familiar example of this; we should say, in pursuing a person, *We should overtake him though he run*; not knowing whether he did run or no; whereas, upon seeing him run, we should say, *We shall overtake him though he runneth, or runs*.

Almost all the irregularities in the construction of any language arise from the *ellipsis* of some words which were originally inserted in the sentence, and made it regular: let us endeavour to explain this manner of speaking, by tracing out the original ellipsis. May we not suppose that the word *run* in this sentence is in the *radical form* (which answers to the *infinitive mood* in other languages) requiring regularly to be preceded by another verb expressing doubt or uncertainty, and the intire sentence to be, *We shall overtake him though he should run*.

It is an objection, however, to this account of the origin of the conjunctive form of verbs, at least, an objection against extending it to the preter tense; that, if we analyze a conjunctive preterite, by supplying the ellipsis, the rule will not appear to hold, except when the preter tense and the participle are the same, as indeed they are in all verbs regularly inflected.

inflected. *If thou loved*, may be rendered, *If thou shouldest have loved*, or *If thou hadst loved*; but *if thou drew*, would be, *If thou hadst drawn*.

That the conjunctive form of verbs is, however, in fact used for the auxiliary and another form of the verb, is evident from a variety of examples. *What a school of private and public virtue had been opened to us, after the resurrection of letters, if the late historians of the Roman commonwealth, and the first of the succeeding monarchy, had come down to us entire. Would have been opened* makes exactly the same sense. *Many acts, which had been blameable in a peaceable government, were employed to detect conspiracies.* Hume's History, vol. 5. p. 261. i. e. *would have been blameable.*

These examples are exactly similar to the following, which is, undeniably, in what I call the conjunctive form. *They affirmed, that it were injustice to deny the execution of the law to any individual, i. e. that it would be injustice, &c.*

This conjunctive form of verbs, though our forefathers paid a pretty strict regard to it, is much neglected by many of our best writers. *If he chances to think right, he knows not how to convey his thoughts to another,*

another, with clearness and perspicuity. Addison.

So little is this form of verbs attended to, that few writers are quite uniform in their own practice with respect to it. We even, sometimes, find both the forms of a verb in the same sentence, and in the same construction. *If a man prefer a life of industry, it is because he has an idea of happiness in wealth; if he prefers a life of gaiety, it is from a like idea concerning pleasure.* Harris's three Treatises, p. 124. *No reasonable man, whether whig or tory, can be of opinion for continuing the war, upon the foot it now is, unless he be a gainer by it, and hopes, it may occasion some new turn of affairs at home, to the advantage of his party; or unless he be very ignorant of the kingdom's condition, and by what means we have been reduced to it.* Swift's Preface, to the Conduct of the Allies.

Grammatical as this conjunctive form of verbs is said to be, by all who write upon the subject, it must, I think, be acknowledged, that it sometimes gives the appearance of stiffness, and harshness to a sentence. *That no pretensions to so illustrious a character, should by any means be received before that operation were performed.* Swift's Tale of a Tub, p. 55.

We

We should owe little to that statesman, who were to contrive a defence, that might supersede the external use of virtue. Ferguson's History of Civil Society, p. 92.

Originally, the two forms of the verb *to be* were used promiscuously. *We be twelve brethren.* Genesis.

III. Of Participles.

To avoid a collision of vowels, the *e* is omitted before *i* in participles of the present tense; as, *love, loving*. On the other hand, the final consonant is doubled in the same case; and indeed before any other addition to the termination, when it is preceded by a single vowel, and when, if it consist of two syllables, the accent would be upon the latter of them; as, *get, getting, getteth; forget, forgetting, forgetteth*.

Many participles, losing the idea of time, which was originally annexed to them, become, in all respects, mere adjectives; as, *charming youth, a loving couple. A regular formed servitude.* Hume's History, vol. 7. p. 105. *A formed design to subvert the constitution.* Ib. vol. 6. p. 285. *A settled design.* Ib. vol. 7. p. 86. *A well appointed army.* Ib. vol. 7. p. 466.

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There

There is great elegance in some of these adjectives, made out of participles.

In this case, the termination *ed* is commonly contracted, and the words are made to end in *t*; as, *time past*, from *passed*. Sometimes the termination *ed* is dropped entirely, when the verb itself ended in *t*, and when the words have wholly lost their original use as participles; as, *content*, *correct*, *corrupt*, &c.

Many nouns are derived from verbs, and end in *ing*, like participles of the present tense. The difference between these nouns and participles is often overlooked, and the accurate distinction of the two senses not attended to. If I say, *What think you of my horse's running to-day*, I use the noun *running*, and suppose the horse to have actually run; for it is the same thing as if I had said, *What think you of the running of my horse*. But if I say, *What think you of my horse running to-day*, I use the participle, and I mean to ask, whether it be proper that my horse should run or not; which, therefore, supposes that he had not then run.

Some of our early poets preserve the *y*, as the remains of the Saxon *ge*, prefixed to many participles. Thus Spencer writes, *ypight* for *pitched*.

Some

Some of our participles seem to have been more irregular formerly than they are now; as, besides the example above-mentioned, Spencer writes *sbright* for *sbrieked*.

Formerly the *d*, which terminates participles preterite, was often dropped, when the verb ended in *e*. *They are confederate against thee*. Psalms. This form of the participle is still common among the Scots. *They engaged the bishops to pronounce Gaviston excommunicate, if he remained any longer in the kingdom*. Hume's History, vol. 2. p. 341. The word *situate* is often used, and especially by lawyers, for *situated*. Milton sometimes uses this form, as *elevate* for *elevated*.

As the *paucity of inflections* is the greatest defect in our language, we ought to take advantage of every variety that the practice of good authors will warrant; and, therefore, if possible, make a *participle* different from the *preterite* of a verb; as, a book is *written*, not *wrote*; the ships are *taken*, not *took*.

This rule, however, has, by no means, been sufficiently attended to by good writers. *It was not wrote on parchment*. Hume's Essays, p. 262. *The court of Augustus had not yet wore off the manners of*

the republick. Ib. p. 182. *You who have forsook them.* Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 18. p. 27. *Who have bore a part in the progress.* Ferguson on Civil Society, p. 261.

In some cases, the custom of leaving out the *n*, in the termination of participles, hath prevailed so long, that it seems too late to attempt to restore it. Thus the word *broke* seems almost to have excluded *broken*. *Whenever a standing rule of law hath been wantonly broke in upon.* Blackstone's Commentaries, vol. 1. p. 70. *Their line of princes was continually broke.* Hume's Essays, p. 302.

Bolingbroke affects a difference in spelling the preter tenses and participles of verbs, when they are the same in sound with the present tense. *The late Duke of Marlborough never red Xenophon, most certainly.* Bolingbroke on History, vol. 1. p. 26. *I remember to have red.* Ib. p. 68. This instance is particularly bad, on account of the adjective being likewise spelled *red*. *Wherever christianity has spread.* Ib. p. 92. Mr. Hume spells the preterite in the same manner. *Such illustrious examples spread knowledge every where, and begat an universal esteem for the sciences.* Hume's Essays, p. 282.

Bolingbroke,

Bolingbroke, in one place, seems to affect a variety in the participles of the same verb, when they happen to come too near together. *He will endeavour to write as the antient author would have wrote, had he writ in the same language.* Bolingbroke on History, vol. 1. p. 68.

The affectation of using the preterite tense instead of the participle, which is common, I think, in the dialect of London, is peculiarly aukward; as, *he has came.* This has sometimes crept into writing. *If some events had not fell out.* Postlethwaite on Commerce, Pref. p. 11.

Different participles of the same verb are sometimes used in different senses. Thus we say, *a man is banded*; but, *the coat is bung up.*

There is a remarkable ambiguity in the use of the participle preterite, as the same word may express a thing either doing, or done. *I went to see the child dressed,* may either mean, I went to see the child whilst they were putting on its cloaths, or when they were put on.

IV. *Of the Auxiliary Verbs.*

It is often unnecessary to repeat the principal verb after an auxiliary, when it has been used before in the same sentence, and the same construction. *I have read that author, but you have not. He loves not plays, as thou dost, Anthony. Shakespeare.*

By studying conciseness we are apt to drop the auxiliary *to have*, though the sense relate to the time past. *I found him better than I expected to find him.* In this case, analogy seems to require that we say, *than I expected to have found him*, i. e. *to have found him* then. On the other hand, as the time past is sufficiently indicated in the former part of the sentence, and *to find* may be said to be indefinite with respect to time, the repetition of the auxiliary will perhaps, by some, be thought awkward, and unnecessary.

In many cases, however, writers are certainly faulty in omitting this auxiliary. *These prosecutions of William, seem to be the most iniquitous measures pursued by the court, during the time that the use of parliaments was suspended. Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 248. To have been,* is what the sense of
of

of this passage requires. *The following conversation is, in its kind, somewhat uncommon; and, for this reason, I have remembered it more minutely than I could imagine. Harris. i. e. I could have imagined.*

Notwithstanding this, when the word *have* occurs more than once in a sentence, it seems to embarrass it, and one of them seems to be superfluous; though, both of them being used in the same construction, and relating to the same time, there seems to be an equal propriety in them both. The following sentences do not, on this account, read well, though they may be strictly grammatical. *History painters would have found it difficult, to have invented such a species of beings, when they were obliged to put a moral virtue into colours. Addison on Medals. The girl said, if her master would but have let her had money, to have sent for proper advice, and broths, and jellies, and such like, she might have been well long ago. George Villiers, vol. 2. p. 90.*

It seems not to have been determined by the English grammarians, whether the passive participles of verbs neuter require the auxiliary *am* or *have* before them. The French, in this case, confine themselves strictly to the former. *If such maxims, and such practices prevail, what has become*

become of national liberty. Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 254. The French would say, *what is become*; and in this instance, perhaps, with more propriety. Yet I think we have an advantage in the choice of these two forms of expression, as it appears to me, that we use them to express different modifications of the sense. When I say, *I am fallen*, I mean at this present instant; whereas, if I say, *I have fallen*, my meaning comprehends, indeed, the foregoing; but has, likewise, a secret reference to some period of time past, as *some time in this day, or in this hour, I have fallen*; implying some continuance of time, which the other form of expression does not.

The conditional form of the verbs *shall*, &c. is used with respect to time past, present, and future. We say, *I should have gone yesterday*, and *I should go to-day, or to-morrow*; but the absolute form *I shall*, always respects time to come.

Sometimes that form of the auxiliary verbs *shall*, *will*, *may*, and *can*, which is generally conditional, is elegantly used to express a very slight assertion, with a modest diffidence. Thus we say, *I should think*; that is, *I am rather inclined to think*. *The general report is, that he should have said*

said in confidence to Clifford, that if he was sure the young man who appeared in Flanders was really son to king Edward, he never would bear arms against him. Hume's History, vol. 3. p. 383. The royal power, it should seem, might be intrusted in their hands. Ib. vol. 6. p. 217.

The auxiliary verb *shall* reverts to its original signification in its conditional form, when *if*, or any other particle expressing uncertainty, is prefixed to it. *I should go*, means I ought to go; but *if I should go*, means *if it happen that I go*. This observation is Mr. Johnson's.

This conditional form of these verbs, at the beginning of a sentence, has often the force of a strong wish, or imprecation. In this sense it is generally found in conjunction with the word *to*. *Would to heaven, young man, I knew you*. Fair American, vol. 1. p. 28. that is, *by heaven, I wish I knew you*. But sometimes we find it without the particle *to*. *Mine Eyes are open now; would, Zopir, thine were too*. Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 25. p. 35. *Would, that kind heaven had ta'en my wretched life*. Ib. vol. 28. p. 49.

The Scots still use *shall* and *will*, *should* and *would*, as they were formerly used in England; i. e. in a sense quite contrary

to that in which they are used with us at present. *We would have been wanting to ourselves, if we did continue to pay a subsidy, for which there was no necessity.* Conduct of the Whigs and Tories examined. *We will, therefore, briefly unfold the reasons which induce us to believe, that this nation really enjoyed a considerable trade before this auspicious reign. We will next show what those difficulties were, under which our commerce laboured under the reign preceding that; and, lastly, we will give a short account how those advantages arose, of which we have been since possessed.* Preceptor, vol. 2. p. 413. *By such gradual innovations the king flattered himself that he would quietly introduce episcopal authority.* Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 22. *He imagined, that by playing one party against the other, he would easily obtain the victory over both.* Ib. vol. 8. p. 250.

In several familiar forms of expression, the word *shall* still retains its original signification, and does not mean to promise, threaten, or engage, in the third person, but the mere futurity of an event; as, *This is as extraordinary a thing as one shall ever bear of.* This sense is also retained by our best writers in the gravest style. *Whoever will examine the writings of all kinds,*

kinds, wherewith this antient set hath honoured the world, shall immediately find, from the whole thread and tenor of them, that the ideas of the authors have been altogether conversant, and taken up with the faults, and blemishes, and oversights, and mistakes of other writers. Swift. It should seem that both the words *shall* and *will* might be substituted for one another in this passage, without any injury to the sense. Put this reverse now, if you please, into the hands of a musical antiquary, he shall tell you, that the use of the shield, being to defend the body from the weapons of an enemy, it very aptly shadows out to us the resolution, or continence of the Emperor. Addison on Medals, p. 31.

When a question is asked, the verb *shall*, in the first person, is used in a sense different from both its other senses. *Shall I write*, means, *Is it your pleasure that I should write*. *Will*, in the second person, only reverts to its other usual sense; for, *Will you write*, means, *Is it your intention to write*.

When the word *will* is no auxiliary, but is used by itself, to express volition, it is inflected regularly, like other verbs. *Nor is the subtle air less obedient to thy power, whether thou willest it to be a minister*
to

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to our pleasure, or utility. Harris's three Treatises, p. 39.

In asking a question, the auxiliary verb *may* is sometimes used without any regard to its general meaning, but only, as it were, to soften the boldness there might be in an inquiry ; as, *How old may you be, &c.*

When the preposition *to* signifies *in order to*, it used to be preceded by *for*, which is now almost obsolete ; *What went ye out for to see.* This exactly corresponds to the use which the French make of *pour*.

The particle *for* before the infinitive, is not, in all cases, obsolete. It is used if the subject of the affirmation intervene between that preposition and the verb. *For holy persons to be humble, is as hard, as for a prince to submit himself to be guided by tutors.* Taylor.

The verb *dare* is sometimes used without the preposition *to* after it, as if it was an auxiliary verb. *Who durst defy the omnipotent to arms.* Milton. *Who have dared defy the worst.* Harris's three Treatises, p. 200. *I dare swear you think my letter already long enough.* Lady Montague's Letters, vol. i. p. 6. *I had a good deal of courage to dare mount him.*

This

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This construction, however, does not seem natural, except in such familiar expressions as, *I dare say, I dare go, and the like.*

SECTION VI.

Of Adverbs and Conjunctions.

MANY adverbs admit of degrees of comparison as well as adjectives, and for the same reason; as, *soon, sooner, soonest; well, better, best; often, oftener, ofteneft.*

In imitation of the French idiom, the adverb of place *where* is often used instead of the pronoun relative, and a preposition. *They framed a protestation, where they repeated all their former claims. Hume's History. i. e. in which they repeated. The king was still determined to run forwards in the same course where he was already, by his precipitate career, too fatally advanced. Ib. i. e. in which he was.*

The adverbs *hence, thence, and whence*, imply a preposition; for they signify, *from this place, from that place, from what place.* It seems, therefore, to be improper
to.

to join a preposition along with them, because it is superfluous; yet the practice is very common. *This is the leviathan*, from whence *the terrible wits of our age are said to borrow their weapons*. Swift's Tale of a Tub, p. 10. *An ancient author prophecies* from hence. Dryden. Indeed the origin of these words is so little attended to, and the preposition *from* so often used in construction with them, that the omission of it in many cases would seem stiff and disagreeable.

We have some examples of adverbs being used for substantives. In 1687 Innocent the eleventh erected it into a community of regulars, since when it has begun to increase in those countries as a religious order. Ulloa's Voyage, vol. 1. p. 270. i. e. *since which time*. *A little while*, and I shall not see you, i. e. *a short time*. *It is worth their while*, i. e. *it deserves their time and pains*. But this use of the word rather suits familiar and low style. The same may be said of the phrase, *to do a thing any how*, i. e. *in any manner*; or, *some how*, i. e. *in some manner*. Somehow, *worthy as these people are, they look upon public penance as disreputable*. Louisa Mildmay, vol. 2. p. 175.

The

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The adverb *how* is sometimes used in a particular sense, implying a negative. *Let us take care how we sin, i. e. Let us take care that we do not sin.* The same construction has not, however, always the same sense. *Take care how ye bear, i. e. in what manner ye bear.*

Sometimes this adverb *how* is equivalent to the conjunction *that*. *It has been matter of astonishment to me, how such persons could take so many silly pains to establish mystery on metaphysics.* Bolingbroke on History, vol. i. p. 175. i. e. *that such persons —.*

Adverbs are more often put for adjectives, agreeable to the idiom of the Greek tongue. *The action was amiss, the then ministry.* Conduct of the Whigs and Tories examined. *The idea is alike in both.* Addison on Medals, p. 70. *The above discourse.* Harris's three Treatises, p. 95.

One use of the adverb *there* is pretty remarkable, though common. It is prefixed to a verb, when the nominative case follows it; but seems to have no meaning whatever, except it be thought to give a small degree of emphasis to the sentence. *There was a man sent from God, whose name was John; i. e. a man was sent.*

In

In some cases, two negative particles were formerly used, as in Greek, where we now use only one. *And this sterre, which is toward the northe, that we clippen the lode sterre, ne appeareth not to hem.* Maundeville.

When the negative is included in the subject of an affirmation, a negative meaning has the appearance of a positive one. *I can do nothing, i. e. I cannot do any thing.*

The words *no* and *not* are used variously by our best writers, and sometimes even promiscuously by the same writer. *Whether it be so or no.* Addison. *Hence; whether, in imitation of Catallus, or not, we apply the same thought to the moon.* Ib.

It is observable, that an answer to a question, in English, is rather a contraction of a sentence, expressing an affirmative or negative proposition, and that it does not at all depend on the manner in which the question is asked. *Whether my friend say, Are you disposed to take a walk; or, Are you not disposed to take a walk; if I be disposed to walk, I say, yes; if not, I say, no.*

The word *so* has, sometimes, the same meaning with *also, likewise, the same*; or rather it is equivalent to the universal pronoun.

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noun *le* in French. *They are happy, we are not so, i. e. not happy.*

Mr. Hume frequently enumerates a great number of particulars without any conjunction whatever between any of them. This construction, though it very happily expresses rapidity and energy, seems to have a bad effect in plain historical style, as it makes a disagreeable *hiatus*, and disappoints the reader. *They enacted, that no proclamation should deprive any person of his lawful possessions, liberties, inheritances, privileges, franchises; nor yet infringe any common law, or laudable custom of the realm.* Hume's History, vol. 4. p. 214. *They were commanded by Dessè, and under him by Andelet, Strozzi, Miellerage, Count Rbin-grave.* This construction, where great numbers of proper names occur, is very common with this author.

Sometimes the particles *or*, and *nor*, may, either of them, be used with nearly equal propriety. *The king, whose character was not sufficiently vigorous, nor decisive, assented to the measure.* Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 102. *Or* would perhaps have been better, but *nor* seems to repeat the negation in the former part of the sentence, and therefore gives more emphasis to the expression.

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The conjunction *as* is seldom used but in connection with some other conjunction, or in dependance upon some other word of the sentence; but, in one case, it is used singly, in the same sense as the preposition *on*. *The books were to have been sold, as this day.*

That is used improperly in the following sentences. *The resolution was not the less fixed, that the secret was as yet communicated to very few, either in the French or the English court.* Hume's History, vol. 7. p. 474. *We will not pretend to examine diseases in all their various circumstances, especially that they have not been so accurately observed or described by writers of later ages, as were to be wished.* Martine's Essays, p. 29.

In several cases we content ourselves, now, with fewer conjunctive particles than our ancestors did; particularly, we often leave out the conjunction *as*, when they used it, after *so*; and the use of it in those cases now appears aukward. *This new associate proposed abundance of theses against indulgences, so as that his doctrines were embraced by great numbers.* Universal Hist. vol. 29. p. 501. *So that* would have been much easier, and better.

We want a conjunction adapted to familiar style, equivalent to *notwithstanding*.

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ing. For all that seems to be too low and vulgar. *A word it was in the mouth of every one, but for all that, as to its precise and definite idea, this may still be a secret.* Harris's three Treatises, p. 5.

In regard that is solemn, and antiquated; *because* would do much better in the following sentence. *The French musick is disliked by all other nations. It cannot be otherwise, in regard that the French prosody differs from that of every other country in Europe.* Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 9. p. 306.

Except is far preferable to *other than*. *It admitted of no effectual cure, other than amputation.* Law Tracts, vol. 1. p. 302. and also to *all but*. *They arose in the morning, and lay down at night, pleased with each other, and themselves, all but Rassilas, who began to withdraw himself from their pastime.* Rassilas, vol. 1. p. 11.

SECTION

SECTION VII.

Of the Composition and Derivation of Words.

WHEN two words are used to compose one, in order to make one name of a thing, they often coalesce into one word, and are written close together; as *glasshouse, countryman*. Sometimes an *s* is interposed between them, the former having been a genitive case; as, *Herdsmen*; originally, *Herd's man*. In other cases, though the idea be one, the words remain quite separate, as *country gentleman, grammar school, Pendervin castle, city gates, &c.* Other terms remain in a kind of middle state; and the two words, not perfectly coalescing into one, are usually joined by a hyphen; as, *court-day, court-hand, knight-errant, cross-bar-shot*; but these hyphens are now generally omitted. They are most used to connect some Latin particle to a word; as, *non-conductor, non-electric*. It is also sometimes used after the prefixes *re* and *pre*, when they are joined to words beginning with an *e*, as, *re-enter, pre-eminence, &c.* The hyphen

phen is also sometimes used to connect particles to other words, in order to compound the idea; an *unheard-of restraint*. Hume's History, vol. 7. p. 449. *Counter-project*. Swift. Words of this kind are easily understood, because their meaning out of composition is retained when they are compounded. *All-conqueror as I am*. Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 27. p. 292.

For want of a sufficient number of terms to express the ascending and descending lines of consanguinity, we awkwardly repeat the word *great* for every generation above grandfather, and below grandson, as *great great grandfather, great great grandson, &c.*

Prepositions are often joined to adverbs, so as to make one word with them; as *hereabouts, hereafter, herein, &c.* but these words are now seldom used, except in formal and solemn style.

A very great number of the most common and significant phrases in our language are made by the addition of a preposition to a verb, particularly the saxon monosyllabic verbs, as *to get, to keep, to make, to give, to cast, to go, to hold, &c.* In the case of these complex terms, the component parts are no guide to the sense of the whole. Thus the common
idea

idea annexed to the verb *give* is lost in the phrases, *to give up*, *to give out*, *to give over*, &c. This circumstance contributes greatly towards making our language peculiarly difficult to foreigners.

Notwithstanding the rules of the composition and derivation of words be ever so well fixed, custom prescribes how far we may take advantage of them; and the force of association of ideas is hardly any where more evident, than in the disagreeable sensation excited by words, which, though perfectly intelligible, have not happened to be adopted by the generality of writers; and especially when easier words have happened to supply their places. A few examples will make this remark striking. *Damningness*. Hammond. *Criminousness*. King Charles. *Designlessly*. Boyle. *Candidness*. South. *The naturalness of the thought*. Addison on Medals, p. 84. *Descanting upon the value, rarity, and authenticity of the several pieces that lie before them*. Ib. *The science of medals, which is charged with so many unconcerning parts of knowledge*. Ib. 84. *Among other informalities*. Hume's Hist. vol. 4. p. 401. *It would be such a disobligation to the prince*. Ib. vol. 6. p. 74. *The dislikers may be forced to fall in with*.
Swift.

Swift. *To discover its spirit and intendment.* Law Tracts, pref. p. 9. *Without any circuity.* Hume. Instead of *precipitate*, and *precipitately*, Mr. Hume writes *precipitant*. History, vol. 8. p. 281. and *precipitantly*. Ib. p. 291. Also instead for *consultation*, he uses *consult*. Ib. vol. 8. p. 65. *It would be unnatural, and uncomfortable.* Law Tracts, vol. 6. p. 125. *It would have been too impopular among the Spaniards.* Bolingbroke on History, vol. 2. p. 11.

Latin prefixes and terminations do not well suit with Saxon words, and *vice versa*. *Dislikeness*. Locke. For this reason, *disquietness* is not so good a word as *disquietude*, or *inquietude*. There are, however, several exceptions to this observation; as the word *genuineness*.

I wish we had more liberty to introduce new words, by a derivation analogous to others already in use, when they are evidently wanted. We have, for instance, no term to express a person who understands mechanics. A *mechanic* is a mere workman. And yet I am afraid that *mechanist*, which Mr. Johnson has introduced in this sense, will not be generally adopted. *Having seen what a mechanist*

chanist *had already performed.* Raffles, vol. 1. p. 36.

When there are two derivatives from the same word, they are apt to slide, by degrees, into different meanings; a custom which tends greatly to enrich a language. Thus we use the word *adhesion* in a literal sense; as when we speak of the adhesion of the lungs to the pleura; and we use the word *adherence* in a figurative sense only; as when we speak of the adherence of a people to their prince, or to a cause. We also use the word *exposure* in a literal sense, and *exposition* in a figurative one; yet Mr. Hume says, *a fountain which has a north exposition.* Political Essays, p. 219.

The Latin word *extempore* is often used without any change, as an English word. Mr. Hume writes *extemporary.* Hist. vol. 6. p. 335.

Derivation is no certain rule to judge of the sense of words. The word *humourist* does not signify a *man of humour.*

There is an inconvenience in introducing new words by composition which nearly resemble others in use before; as, *disserve*, which is too much like *deserve.*

SECTION VIII.

Of Articles.

ARTICLES are, strictly speaking, adjectives, as they necessarily require a noun substantive to follow them, the signification of which they serve to limit and ascertain, as all adjectives do.

In some few cases, after the manner of the French, we prefix the definite article *the* to the names of towns; as, the *Hague*, the *Havannah*, the *Devises*.

Proper names, when they are used as common ones, may have an article. *One would take him to be an Achilles.* Devil upon Crutches.

The article *a* is made more emphatical by the addition of the adjective *certain*. *A certain man had two sons.* Luke. But this does not seem to suit proper names. *At last, a certain Fitzgerald appeared.* Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 161. *One Fitzgerald* would have been better.

In using proper names, we generally have recourse to the adjective *one*, to particularise them. If I tell my friend, *I have seen one Mr. Roberts*, I suppose the Mr. Roberts that I mean to be a stranger

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to

to him; whereas, if I say, *I have seen Mr. Roberts*, I suppose him to be a person well known. Nothing supposes greater notoriety than to call a person simply Mr. It is, therefore, great presumption, or affectation, in a writer, to prefix his name in this manner to any performance, as if all the world were well acquainted with his name and merit.

In general, it may be sufficient to prefix the article to the former of two words in the same construction; though the French never fail to repeat it in this case. *There were many hours, both of the night and day, which he could spend, without suspicion, in solitary thought.* Rassilas, vol. 1. p. 23. It might have been, *of the night, and of the day.* And, for the sake of emphasis, we often repeat the article in a series of epithets. *He hoped, that this title would secure him a perpetual, and an independent authority.* Hume's History, vol. 3. p. 326.

We sometimes, after the manner of the French, repeat the same article when the adjective, on account of any clause depending upon it, is put after the substantive. *Of all the considerable governments among the Alps, a commonwealth is a constitution, the most adapted of any to the poverty*

erty of those countries. Addison on Medals. With such a specious title, as that of blood, which with the multitude is always the claim, the strongest, and most easily comprehended. Ib. p. 235. They are not the men in the nation, the most difficult to be replaced. Devil upon Crutches.

We sometimes repeat the article, when the epithet precedes the substantive. *He was met by the worshipful the magistrates.*

It should seem, that as *a* without *n* is prefixed to a consonant, it ought to suffice before an *b* that is sounded, which is, generally, equivalent to a consonant; yet many writers prefix *an* to words beginning with that letter. *An half.* Blackstone's Commentaries. *Beings of an higher order.* Raffles, vol. 1. p. 112.

A is sometimes put for *every*; as in such phrases as these, *a hundred a year*, i. e. *every year*; or for *one*, as when we say, *so much a dozen*, *a pound*, &c. *A hundred men a day died of it.* Hume's History, vol. 5. p. 80. The French always use the article *the* in this construction. It appears, however, that the article *a*, which, in many cases, signifies *one*, should not be prefixed to words which express a great number, yet custom authorises this use of it. *Liable to a great many inconveniences.*

Tillotson. *Many a man*, i. e. *many times a man*.

A nice distinction of the sense is sometimes made by the use or omission of the article *a*. If I say, *He behaved with a little reverence*, my meaning is positive. If I say, *He behaved with little reverence*, my meaning is negative; and these two are by no means the same, or to be used in the same cases. By the former I rather praise a person, by the latter I dispraise him.

Sometimes a nice distinction may be made in the sense by a regard to the position of the article only. When we say *half a crown*, we mean a piece of money of one half of the value of a crown; but when we say *a half crown* we mean a half crown piece, or a piece of metal, of a certain size, figure, &c. Two shillings and six pence is *half a crown*, but not *a half crown*.

The article *the* is often elegantly put, after the manner of the French, for the pronoun possessive. As, *he looks him full in the face*, i. e. *in his face*. *That awful Majesty, in whose presence they were to strike the forehead on the ground*, i. e. *their foreheads*. Ferguson on Civil Society, p. 390.

Some

Some writers, according to the same idiom, drop the article *the* before titles, and write (for they would not say) *preface*, *introduction*, *dedication*, &c. instead of, *the preface*, *the introduction*, *the dedication*, &c. which is the true English idiom.

In applying the ordinal numbers to a series of kings, &c. we generally interpose the article *the* between the name and the adjective expressing the number, as, *Henry the first*, *Charles the second*; but some writers affect to transpose these words, and place the numeral adjective first. *The first Henry*. Hume's History, vol. 1. p. 497. This construction is common with this writer, but there seems to be a familiarity, and want of dignity in it.

The article *the* has, sometimes, a fine effect, in distinguishing a person by an epithet; as it gives us an idea of him, as being the only person to whom it can be applied. *In the history of Henry the fourth, by father Daniel, we are surprized at not finding him the great man*. Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 5. p. 82. *I own, I am often surprized you should have treated so coldly, a man, so much the gentleman*. Fair American, vol. 1. p. 13. Sometimes this same article is used in conversation, with a peculiar kind of emphasis, similar to the

cases above-mentioned ; as, *He was never the man, that gave me a penny in his whole life.*

When a word is in such a state, as that it may, with very little impropriety, be considered, either as a proper, or a common name, the article *the* may be prefixed to it or not, at pleasure. *The Lord Darnly was the person in whom most men's wishes centered.* Hume's History, vol. 5. p. 87. *Lord Darnly* would have read just as well ; and this form is more common, the word *Lord* being generally considered as part of the proper name.

Formerly, the article *the* was prefixed to the pronoun relative. *In the which.* Corinthians.

For the greater emphasis, degrees of comparison frequently take this article. The oftener *I read this author*, the more *I admire him.* *I think his style the best I ever read.*

In a variety of phrases, in which the sense is abstract, or the sentence contracted, articles are omitted. As, *he went on foot, or on horseback.* In many of these cases, it is not improbable, but that the articles were used originally ; but were dropped when the phrases became familiar. Thus *by sea, by land, on shore, &c.*
might

might have been, *by the sea, by the land, on the shore, &c.* When such phrases as these are very familiar, we do not expect an article, and are rather disappointed when we find one. *The half-learned man, relying upon his strength, seldom perceives his wants, till he finds his deception past a cure.* History of England in Letters, vol. 1. p. 41. We generally say, *past cure.* When words are used, in this manner, without any article, it is a pretty sure sign, that they are, or have been, in frequent use. *The rights and immunities of holy church.* Parliamentary History, vol. 1. p. 12.

When the names of things are so circumstanced, that articles, and other marks of particularity, are unnecessary; we usually omit them, especially in conversation. A familiar example of this we may observe in persons speaking to children, who generally say, *nurse, pappa, or mamma;* and seldom *your nurse, your pappa, or your mamma;* because the child has no idea of any nurse, &c. besides his own.

In many other cases, the articles seem to be omitted where we can discover nothing but a mere ellipsis; as no reason can be seen for the omission, except that it has a little more conciseness or energy. Thus we say, *Have you trout in this river,*

i. e. *have you any of that species of fish which is called trout.* Nothing is so dangerous, as to unite two persons so closely, in all their interests and concerns, as man and wife, without rendering the union entire and total. Hume's Essays, p. 259. *He was fired with the desire of doing something, tho' he knew not yet, with distinctness, either end or means.* Rassilas, vol. 1. p. 22. In the former of these sentences, the words *a man and his wife* would have conveyed the same idea, and in the same extent, as *man and wife*; for the meaning of both is precisely, *any man and his wife*. In the latter sentence, *the end and the means* would have expressed the idea very completely, since only one particular end or means was intended.

In the following sentence an universality seems to be aimed at by the omission of the article, which the sense hardly requires. *The pope found himself entitled to the possession of England and Ireland, on account of the heresy of prince and people.* *Of the prince* would have been better. In some cases, however, there seems to be a peculiar elegance in adopting the universal sense of the word, by omitting the article when it might have been used with propriety enough. *If the young man who appeared*

peared in Flanders was really son to king Edward, he never would bear arms against him. Hume's History, vol. 3. p. 383. Perhaps the following sentence is rather more elegant by the omission of the article. *I suspect, that from any height where life can be supported, there may be danger of too quick descent.* Rassilas, vol. 1. p. 39. *Too quick a descent* is more common.

In many cases, articles are omitted in common conversation, or in familiar style, which seem to have a propriety in writing, or in grave style. At worst, *time might be gained by this expedient.* Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 435. *At the worst* might have been better in this place. In very familiar style we sometimes drop the article after it has been frequently used. *Give me here John baptist's head.* There would have been more dignity in saying, *John the baptist's head.*

SECTION IX.

Of the Use of Prepositions.

ALL that I have done in this difficult part of grammar, concerning the proper use of prepositions, has been to make a few general remarks upon the subject; and then to give a collection of the instances, that have occurred to me, of the improper use of some of them. To make a grammar complete, every verb, and adjective, to which these prepositions are ever subjoined, ought to be reduced into tables; in which all the variety of cases in which they are used, should be carefully distinguished. The greatest part of such tables, however, would be of little use to English men, who are generally accustomed to the right preposition; and who will be chiefly liable to make mistakes where others have been mistaken before them; and a considerable number of these cases I have noted.

Different relations, and different senses, must be expressed by different prepositions; tho' in conjunction with the same verb or adjective. Thus we say, *to converse*

verse with *a person*, upon *a subject*, in *a house*, &c. We also say, *we are disappointed of a thing*, when we cannot get it; and *disappointed in it*, when we have it, and find it does not answer our expectations. But two different prepositions must be improper in the same construction, and in the same sentence. *The combat between thirty Britons, against twenty English.* Smollet's *Voltaire*, vol. 2. p. 292.

In some cases, it is not possible to say to which of two prepositions the preference is to be given, as both are used promiscuously, and custom has not decided in favour of either of them. We say, *expert at*, and *expert in a thing*. *Expert at finding a remedy for his mistakes.* Hume's *Hist.* vol. 4. p. 417. We say, *disapproved of*, and *disapproved by a person*. *Disapproved by our court.* Swift. It is not improbable, but that, in time, these different constructions may be appropriated to different uses. All languages furnish examples of this kind, and the English as many as any other.

When prepositions are subjoined to nouns, they are generally the same which are subjoined to the verbs, from which the nouns are derived. *John, shewing the same disposition to tyranny over his subjects,*
Hume's

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Hume's Hist. vol. I. p. 74. i. e. *to tyrannize over his subjects.*

When a word ending in *ing* is preceded by an article, it seems to be used as a noun; and therefore ought not to govern another word, without the intervention of a preposition. *By blackening his fame, had that injury been in their power, they formed a very proper prelude to the murdering his person.* Hume's History, vol. 7. p. 117. In this construction, the word *murdering* is evidently a participle of an active verb. Qu. also, is *murdering a man's person* proper?

The force of a preposition is implied in some words, particularly in the word *home*. When we say, *he went home*, we mean to *his own house*; yet in other constructions, this same word requires a preposition; for we say, *he went from home*.

Many writers affect to subjoin to any word the preposition with which it is compounded, or the idea of which it implies; in order to point out the relation of the words in a more distinct and definite manner, and to avoid the more indeterminate prepositions *of*, and *to*; but general practice, and the idiom of the English tongue, seem to oppose the innovation. Thus many writers say *averse from a thing*.
Averse

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Averse from *Venus*. Pope. *The abhorrence against all other sects*. Hume's History, vol. 4. p. 34. But other writers use *averse* to it, which seems more truly English. *Averse* to any advice. Swift. An attention to the latent metaphor may be pleaded in favour of the former example, and this is a rule of general use, in directing what prepositions to subjoin to a word. Thus we say *devolve* upon a thing, and Mr. Addison improperly says, *poetical imitation, founded in [on] natural resemblance, is much inferior to that of painting*. But this rule would sometimes mislead us, particularly where the figure has become nearly evanescent. Thus we should naturally expect, that the word *depend* would require *from* after it; but custom obliges us to say *depend upon*, as well as *insist upon a thing*. Yet were we to use the same word where the figure was manifest, we should use the preposition *from*; as *the cage depends from the roof of the building*.

Of the Preposition of.

Several of our modern writers have leaned to the French idiom in the use of the preposition *of*, by applying it where the French use *de*, though the English idiom would require another preposition, or no preposition at all in the case; but no writer has departed more from the genius of the English tongue, in this respect, than Mr. Hume. *Richlieu profited of every circumstance, which the conjuncture afforded.* Hume's History, vol. 4. p. 251. We say *profited by*. *He remembered him of the fable.* Ib. vol. 5. p. 185. *The great difficulty they find of fixing just sentiments.* Ib. *The king of England, provided of every supply.* Ib. vol. 1. p. 206. In another place he writes, *provide them in food and raiment.* Ib. vol. 2. p. 65. The true English idiom seems to be *to provide with a thing*. *Is is situation chiefly which decides of the fortunes and characters of men.* Ib. vol. 6. p. 283. i. e. *concerning*. *He found the greatest difficulty of writing.* Ib. vol. 1. p. 401. i. e. *in*. *Of which, he was extremely greedy, extremely prodigal, and extremely necessitous.* Ib. vol. 4. p. 12. *He was eager of recommending it to his fellow-*

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fellow-citizens. Ib. vol. 7. p. 161. *The good Lady was careful of serving me of every thing.* In this example *with* would have been more proper.

It is agreeable to the same idiom, that *of* seems to be used instead of *for* in the following sentences. *The rain hath been falling of a long time.* Maupertuis' Voyage, p. 60. *It might perhaps have given me a greater taste of its antiquities.* Addison. *Of*, in this place, occasions a real ambiguity in the sense. *A taste of a thing* implies actual enjoyment of it; but *a taste for it* only implies a capacity for enjoyment. *The esteem which Philip had conceived of the ambassador.* Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 90. *You know the esteem I have of this philosophy.* Law Tracts, vol. 1. p. 3. *Youth wandering in foreign countries, with as little respect of others, as prudence of his own, to guard him from danger. An indemnity of past offences.* Hume's History, vol. 5. p. 29.

In the following sentences, *on* or *upon* might very well be substituted for *of*. *Was totally dependent of the papal crown.* Hume's History, vol. 2. p. 71. *Laid hold of.* Ib. vol. 1. p. 292. We also use *of* instead of *on* or *upon*, in the following familiar phrases, which occur chiefly
in

in conversation ; *to call of a person, and to wait of him.*

In some cases, a regard to the French idiom hath taught us to substitute *of* for *in*. *The great difficulty they found of fixing just sentiments.* Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 63. *Curious of Antiquities.* Dryden.

In a variety of cases, the preposition *of* seems to be superfluous in our language ; and, in most of them, it has been derived to us from the French. *Notwithstanding of the numerous panegyrics on the antient English liberty.* Hume's Essays, p. 81. *Notwithstanding of this unlucky example.* Ib. p. 78. Awkward as this construction is, it is generally used by several of our later writers. This preposition seems to be superfluous, when it is prefixed to a word which is only used to show the extent of another preceding word, as, *the city of London, the passions of hope and fear are very strong.* It also seems to be superfluous after several adjectives, which are sometimes used as substantives, *a dozen of years.* Hume's Essays, p. 258.

In the following instances, it may be a matter of indifference whether we use this preposition or not. *To one who considers coolly of the subject.* Hume's Political Essays, p. 141. *I can conceive of nothing more*

more worthy of him. Price. It is sometimes omitted, and sometimes inserted after *worthy*. *It is worthy observation.* Hume's History. I should chuse to make use of it in this case. But I think it had better be omitted in the following sentence. *The emulation who should serve their country best no longer subsists among them, but of who should obtain the most lucrative command.* Montague's Rise and Fall of antient Republicks, p. 137. The whole construction of this sentence is by no means natural. The meaning of it, when expressed at full length is, *The emulation which consists in striving who should serve his country, &c.*

The preposition *of* seems to be omitted in the following sentence, in which it resembles the French idiom. *All this, however, is easily learned from medals, where they may see likewise the plan of many, the most considerable buildings of ancient Rome.* Addison on Medals, p. 23. i. e. *of many of the most considerable buildings, &c.*

Of is frequently ambiguous, and would oftener be perceived to be so, did not the sense of the rest of the passage in which it occurs prevent that inconvenience; and this it will often do, even when this part of the sentence, singly taken, would suggest a meaning the very reverse of what is intended.

tended. *The attack of the English* naturally means *an attack made by the English, upon others*; but in the following sentence, it means an attack made upon the English. *The two princes concerted the means of rendering ineffectual their common attack of the English.* Hume's History, vol. 3. p. 114. *The oppression of the peasants seemeth great.* p. 152. is in itself quite ambiguous, but the sense of the passage make the peasants to be the oppressed, not the oppressors.

Of is used in a particular sense in the phrase, *he is of age*, the meaning of which is, *he is arrived at what is deemed the age of manhood.*

Of the Prepositions to and for.

Agreeable to the Latin and French idioms, the preposition *to* is sometimes used in conjunction with such words as, in those languages, govern the dative case; but this construction does not seem to suit the English language. *His servants ye are, to whom ye obey.* Romans. *And to their general's voice they soon obeyed.* Milton. *The people of England may congratulate to themselves, that the nature of our government, and the clemency of our kings secure*

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us. Dryden. *Something like this has been reproached to Tacitus.* Bolingbroke on History, vol. 1. p. 136.

To seems to be used instead of *for* in the following sentences. *Deciding law-suits to the northern counties.* Hume's History, vol. 4. p. 191. *A great change to the better.* Hume's Essays, p. 133. At least *for* is more usual in this construction.

To seems to be used improperly in the following sentences. *His abhorrence to that superstitious figure.* Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 323. i. e. *of.* *Tby prejudice to my cause.* Dryden. i. e. *against.* *Consequent to.* Locke. i. e. *upon.* *The English were very different people then to what they are at present.* Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 1. p. 178.

In several cases, *to* may be suppressed; but if there be two clauses of a sentence, in the same construction, it should either be omitted, or inserted in both alike. *The people stole his gibbet, and paid it the same veneration, as to his cross.* Hume's Hist. vol. 2. p. 39.

The place of the preposition *for*, had better have been supplied by other prepositions in the following sentences. *The worship of this deity is extremely ridiculous, and therefore better adapted for the vulgar.*
Smollet's

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Smollet's *Voltaire*, vol. 1. p. 203. i. e. *to. To die for thirst.* Addison. i. e. *of or by. More than they thought for* [of]. Dalem-
bert's *History of the Expulsion of the Je-*
suits, p. 132. *I think that virtue is so a-*
miable in herself, that there is no need for [of]
the knowledge of God, to make her beloved
and followed. Smollet's *Voltaire*, vol. 1.
p. 30. *If the party chuse to insist for* [upon]
it. Law Tracts, vol. 1. p. 70.

The preposition *for*, is used in a pecu-
liar sense in the following passage; and
prejudices for prejudices, *some persons may*
be apt to think, that those of a churchman
are as tolerable as of any other. Law Tracts,
vol. 1. p. 184. i. e. *if prejudices on all sides*
be fairly compared.

For is superfluous in the phrase, *more*
than he knows for. Shakespear. This is
only used in familiar and colloquial style.

Of the Prepositions with and upon.

The preposition *with* seems to be used
where *to* would have been more proper in
the following sentences. *Reconciling him-*
self with the king. Hume's *History*, vol.
4. p. 176. *Those things which have the*
greatest resemblance with each other fre-
quently differ the most. Smollet's *Voltaire*,
vol.

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vol. 3. p. 65. *And that such selection, and rejection should be consonant with our proper nature.* Harris's three Treatises, p. 205. *Conformable with.* Addison. *The history of St. Peter is agreeable with the sacred text.* Newberry's New Testament.

Other prepositions had better have been substituted for *with* in the following sentences. *Glad with [at] the sight of hostile blood.* Dryden. *He has as much reason to be angry with you as with him.* Preceptor, vol. 1. p. 10. *Conversant with a science.* Pope. *In* would have been at least equally proper. *They could be prevailed with [upon] to retire.* Hume's History, vol. 4. p. 10.

In the following sentence *to dispense with myself* is used in the same sense as *to excuse myself*. *I could not dispense with myself from making a voyage to Caprea.* Addison.

The preposition *with* and a personal pronoun sometimes serves for a contraction of a clause of a sentence. *The homunculus is endowed with the same locomotive powers and faculties with us.* Tristram Shandy, vol. 1. p. 5. i. e. *the same faculties with which we are endowed.*

The oblique case of the personal pronouns is used in conjunction with this preposition by way of emphasis, without
any

any other addition to the sense, as *away with thee, get thee gone with thee.*

The preposition *on* or *upon* seems to be used improperly in the following sentences. *I thank you for helping me to an use (of a medal) that perhaps I should not have thought on [of].* Addison on Medals. *Authors have to brag on [of].* Pope. *Censorious upon all his brethren.* Swift. *perhaps of. His reason could not attain a thorough conviction on those subjects.* Hume's History, vol. 7. p. 355. *A greater quantity may be taken from the heap, without making any sensible alteration upon it.* Hume's Political Essays, p. 12. i. e. *in. Every office of command should be entrusted to persons on [in] whom the parliament could confide.* Macaulay's History, p. 112.

This preposition seems to be superfluous in the following sentence. *Their efforts seemed to anticipate on the spirit, which became so general afterwards.* Hume's Hist. vol. 3. p. 5.

We say, *to depend upon a thing*, but not *to promise upon it.* *But this effect we may safely say, no one could beforehand have promised upon.* Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 75. *It might have been, have promised themselves.*

Of

Of the Prepositions in, from, and others.

The preposition *in* is sometimes used where the French use their *en*, but where some other preposition would be more agreeable to the English idiom. Some of the following sentences are examples of this. *He made a point of honour in [of] not departing from his enterprize.* Hume's History, vol. 1. p. 402. *I think it necessary, for the interest of virtue and religion, that the whole kingdom should be informed in some parts of your character.* Swift. i. e. about, or concerning. In some of these cases, *in* might with advantage be changed for *to* or *into*. *Painters have not a little contributed to bring the study of medals in vogue.* Addison. On the other hand, I have found *into* put for *in*: *engaged him into attempts.* Hume's History, vol. 5. p. 162. *To be liable in a compensation.* Law Tracts, vol. 1. p. 45.

It is agreeable to the French idiom, that *in* is sometimes put for *with*. *He had been provided in a small living by the Duke of Norfolk.* Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 68.

In

In some familiar cases, there is an ellipsis of this preposition. *It was esteemed no wise probable.* Hume's History, vol. 7. p. 315. but this construction hardly suits grave style.

In is superfluous in the colloquial phrase, *he finds me in money and cloaths, &c.*

The preposition *from* had better be changed in the following sentences. *The estates of all were burthened by fines and confiscations, which had been levied from them.* Hume's History, vol. 7. p. 315. *He acquits me from mine iniquity.* Job. better of. *Could he have profited from [by] repeated experiences.* Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 259.

From seems to be superfluous after *forbear*. *He could not forbear from appointing the Pope to be one of the God-fathers.* Ib. vol. 8. p. 282.

The preposition *among* always implies a number of things; and, therefore, cannot be used in conjunction with the word *every*, which is in the singular number. *Which is found among every species of liberty.* Hume's Essays, p. 92. *The opinion of the advance of riches in the island seems to gain ground among every body.* Hume's Political Essays, p. 71.

There

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There seems to be some impropriety in the use of the preposition *under* in the following sentence. *That range of hills, known under the general name of mount Jura.* Account of Geneva.

The preposition *through* is sometimes supplied by a very particular construction of the adjective *long*, thus *all night long*, and *all day long*, are equivalent to, *through all the night, through all the day*.

Sometimes *a* is put for *in*. *But the Bassa detains us till he receives orders from Adrianople, which may probably be a month a coming.* Lady Montague's Letters, vol. i. p. 147. i. e. *in coming*.

SECTION X.

Of the Order of Words in a Sentence.

AN adjective should not be separated from its substantive, even by words which modify its meaning, and make but one sense with it. *A large enough number surely.* Hume's Political Essays, p. 196. *a number large enough.* *The lower sort of people are good enough judges of one not very distant from them.* Ib. p. 261. *Ten thousand is a large enough base.* Ib.

Adjectives signifying dimensions, and some other properties of things, come after the nouns expressing those particular dimensions, or properties. *A tree three feet thick.* *A body fifty thousand strong.* Hume's History, vol. 3. p. 242. This last expression is rather vulgar.

Sometimes the word *all* is emphatically put after a number of particulars comprehended under it.

*Her fury, her despair, her every gesture
Was nature's language all.*

Voltaire, vol. 27. p. 274.

Ambition,

Ambition, interest, glory, all concurred. Letters on Chivalry, p. 11. Sometimes a substantive, which, likewise, comprehends the preceding particulars, is used in conjunction with this adjective. *Royalists, republicans, churchmen, sectaries, courtiers, patriots; all parties concurred in the illusion.* Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 73.

The word *such* is often placed after a number of particulars to which it equally relates. *The figures of discourse, the pointed antithesis, the unnatural conceit, the jingle of words; such false ornaments were not employed by early writers.* Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 129.

By way of emphasis, the demonstrative pronoun *this*, though in the construction of a nominative case, is sometimes placed without any verb, after the words to which it belongs. *A matter of great importance this, in the conduct of life.* I cannot say that I admire this construction, though it be much used, and particularly, if I remember right, by Mr. Seed, in his sermons.

Words designed to distinguish, and to give an emphasis to the personal pronouns, which are the nominative case to a verb, are naturally placed after it. *If ye forgive*

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give not, every one of you, his brother his trespasses.

When a sentence begins with the words *all, many, so, as, how, too*, and perhaps some others, the article *a* is elegantly preceded by the adjective, and followed by its correspondent substantive. *He spake in so affectionate a manner. So tall a man I never saw before. So professed an admirer of the ancient poets. Addison on Medals, p. 27. He is too great a man.*

Most other particles must be placed before the adjectives; as, *he spake in quite an affectionate manner. Such a dark cloud overcast the evening of that day. Hume's History, vol. 5. p. 469. So dark a cloud would have been equivalent, and in all respects better. He was no less able a negociator, than a courageous warrior. Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 1. p. 181.*

The preposition *of* will not bear to be separated from the noun which it either precedes or follows, without a disagreeable effect. *The ignorance of that age, in mechanical arts, rendered the progress very slow of this new invention. Hume's History, vol. 2. p. 445. Being in no sense capable of either intention or remission. Harris's three Treatises, p. 190. The word itself of God. His picture, in distemper, of calumny,*

calumny, borrowed from the description of one painted by Apelles, was supposed to be a satyr on that cardinal. Walpole's Anecdotes.

The country first dawned, that illuminated the world, and beyond which the arts cannot be traced, of civil society or domestic life. Rasselas, vol. 2. p. 32.

Little explanatory circumstances are particularly awkward between a genitive case, and the word which usually follows it. *She began to extol the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding.* Harriot Watson, vol. 1. p. 27.

If an entire clause of a sentence depend upon a word followed by *of*, the transposition is easy. *Few examples occur, of princes who have willingly resigned their power.* Hume's History, vol. 5. p. 472. If the words followed by this particle make a clause, which might have been omitted, and have left the sense compleat, it may be inserted at some distance from the noun on which they depend, as it were, by way of parenthesis. *The noblest discoveries those authors ever made, of art or of nature, have all been produced by the transcendent genius of the present age.* Swift's Tale of a Tub, p. 57.

The preposition *of*, and the words with which it is connectd, may often elegantly

gantly precede the verb on which they both depend. *Two months had now passed, and of Pekuah nothing had been heard.* Raffles, vol. 2. p. 54. This construction is not quite so easy, when these words depend upon a substantive coming after them. *He found the place replete with wonders, of which he proposed to solace himself with the contemplation, if he should never be able to accomplish his flight.* Ib. vol. 1. p. 32. This construction is properly French, and does not succeed very well in English. Of the present state, *whatever it be, we feel and are forced to confess the misery.* Ib. p. 143. In the former of these sentences we should read, *with the contemplation of which he proposed to solace himself.* *I am glad, then, says Cynthio, that he has thrown him upon a science, of which he has long wished to hear the usefulness.* Addison on Medals, p. 12.

It is a matter of indifference, with respect to the pronoun *one another*, whether the preposition *of* be placed between the two parts of it, or before them both. We may either say, *they were jealous one of another,* or *they were jealous of one another.*

Whenever no ambiguity will be occasioned by putting the nominative case after the verb, this construction makes an elegant

gant variety in English style. This is particularly the case in verbs neuter, which admit of no object of the affirmation. *Upon thy right hand stands the Queen.* The nominative case has always this place when a sentence begins with the particle *there*. *There was a man sent from God, whose name was John.* And generally after *then*. *Then came unto him the Pharisees.* It may often, in other cases, have this place, and even be separated from the verb by other words. *His character is as much disputed as is commonly that of princes who are our cotemporaries.* Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 97. But they are awkwardly separated in the following sentence. *Even the savage, still less than the citizen, can be made to quit that manner of life, in which he has been trained.* Ferguson on Civil Society, p. 145.

In the close of a paragraph, the nominative case generally follows the verb, even when the sentence is affirmative. *And thus have you exhibited a sort of a sketch of art.* Harris's three Treatises, p. 12.

The nominative case does not easily follow the verb when the particle *than* precedes it. *He thought that the presbyters would soon have become more dangerous to the magistrate, than had ever been the prela-*

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tical clergy. Hume's History, vol. 7. p. 71. than the prelatical clergy had ever been.

When the nominative case is put after a verb, the adverb *never*, and such others as are usually placed after the verb, are put before them both; and when those words begin a sentence, we are disappointed, if the verb do not immediately follow it. *Never sovereign was blessed with more moderation of temper. Hume's Hist. vol. 6. p. 389. never was sovereign. Hence the impossibility appears, that this undertaking should be begun and carried on in a monarchy. Hume's Essays, p. 173. hence appears the impossibility.*

Also when the nominative case is put after the verb, on account of an interrogation, no other word should be interposed between them. *May not we here say with Lucretius. Addison on Medals, p. 29. may we not say. Is not it he. Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 18. p. 152. is it not he.*

When a nominative case is not put after a verb, it has a still worse effect to place the negative particles before it. *Not only he found himself a prisoner very narrowly guarded. Hume's History, vol. 7. p. 77. It should either have been, he not only found himself, or not only did he find*

find himself. The following sentence is still more awkwardly constructed, by the interposition of a clause between the nominative case and the verb. *Not only the power of the crown, by means of wardships and purveyance, was very considerable, it was also unequal, and personal.* Hume's History, vol. 7. p. 362.

The auxiliary verb *do*, or *did*, is necessarily placed before the nominative case, when the sentence begins with *neither*, *nor*, and perhaps some other adverbs. This rule is observed in one part of the following sentence, and neglected in the other. The difference of the effect will be perceived by every English ear. *Neither the constable opened his gates to them, nor did the Duke of Burgundy bring him the smallest assistance.* Hume's History, vol. 3. p. 266.

By a very peculiar idiom, the nominative case is sometimes put after the conjunctive form of the verbs *may*, *can*, &c. when a question is reported, the word *if* being understood, as in the former case. *She demanded of me, could I play at cribbage.* Swift's Posthumous Works. i. e. *she demanded of me, if I could play.* I have frequently heard this form of expression in conversation, but do not remem-

ber ever to have met with it in writing, except in this passage of Swift.

The negative particles are not well situated between the active participles of auxiliary verbs, and the passive participles of other verbs. *Which being not admitted into general use*, does not please the ear so well as *which not being admitted*. *Having not known, or not considered*; i. e. *not having known*.

When several auxiliary verbs are used, the place of the adverb is after the first of them (if the second of them be not a participle) whether the nominative case come before or after the verb. *The three graces are always hand in hand, to show us that these three should be never separated*. Addison on Medals, p. 29. *should never be separated*. *And since the favour can be conferred but upon few, the greater number will be always discontented*. Rastillas, vol. 2. p. 9. *will always be*. *Shall I be never suffered to forget these lectures*. Ib. vol. 1. p. 16. *shall I never be*.

Though the negative participles follow the auxiliary verbs in an interrogation, no other adverbs should be placed there along with them. *Would not then this art have been wholly unknown*. Harris's

ris's three Treatises, p. 24. *Would not this art then have been.*

So closely do we expect every relative to follow its antecedent, that if the antecedent be a genitive case, the other substantive cannot be interposed between them, without a disagreeable effect. *They attacked Northumberland's house, whom they put to death.* Hume's History, vol. 3. p. 362. *He had sufficient experience of the extreme ardour and impatience of Henry's temper, who could bear no contradiction.* Ib. vol. 4. p. 99. *I shall not confine myself to any man's rules that ever lived.* Tristram Shandy, vol. 1. p. 10.

In the following sentences the relative, being still farther removed from its antecedent, has a still worse effect. *To involve his minister in ruin, who had been the author of it.* Hume's Hist. vol. 4. p. 225. *Primauxeth's ship was set on fire, who, finding his destruction inevitable, bore down upon the English admiral.* Ib. vol. 3. p. 362.

The object of an affirmation should not easily be separated from its verb by the intervention of other clauses of the sentence. The bad effect of this arrangement may be perceived in the following examples. *Frederick, seeing it was impossible to trust, with safety, his life in the*
band.

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hands of Christians, was obliged to take the Mahometans for his guard. Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 2. p. 73. The emperor refused to convert, at once, the truce into a definitive treaty. Bolingbroke on History, vol. 2. p. 310. Becket could not better discover, than by attacking so powerful an interest, his resolution to maintain with vigour the rights, real or pretended, of his church. Hume's History, vol. 1. p. 415.

Even when a verb and a preposition, or some other word, make, as it were, but one compound word, and have but one joint meaning, yet they should be separated in this case. *Arran proposed to invite back the king upon conditions. Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 299. to invite the king back.*

The French always place their adverbs immediately after their verbs, but this order by no means suits the idiom of the English tongue, yet Mr. Hume has used it in his history, almost without variation. *His government gave courage to the English barons to carry farther their opposition. Hume's Hist. vol. 2. p. 46. Edward obtained a dispensation from his oath, which the barons had compelled Gaveston to take, that he would abjure for ever the realm.*
Ib.

Ib. vol. 2. p. 342. *to carry their opposition farther, and, to abjure the realm for ever.*

Sometimes a clause of a sentence, containing a separate circumstance, is put in the place of the adverb. *However, the miserable remains were, in the night, taken down.* Universal Hist. vol. 24. p. 272.

So convenient is the place between the auxiliary verb and the participle for other words, that several adjectives, agreeing with the nominative case, are best inserted there. *They all are invested with the power of punishing.* Account of Geneva, p. 91. *they are all invested.*

Too many circumstances are thrown before the nominative case and the verb, in the following sentence. *This is what we mean by the original contract of society, which, though, perhaps, in no instance it has ever been formally expressed, at the first institution of a state, yet, in nature, and reason, should always be understood and implied in every act of associating together.* Blackstone's Commentaries, vol. 1. p. 48. The arrangement of this sentence will be rectified by placing the circumstance, *in no instance*, between the auxiliary and the participle; *which though perhaps, it has, in no instance, been formally expressed.*

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The parts of the word *however*, are often separated by the interposition of an adjective, and the particle *so* is prefixed to the part *ever*; which seems to be much better than to subjoin the adjective to the entire word. *The king, however little scrupulous in some respects, was incapable of any thing harsh or barbarous.* Hume's Hist. vol. 7. p. 468. *how little scrupulous soever.* *The opinions of that sect still kept possession of his mind, however little they appeared in his conduct.* Ib. 471. *how little soever.* *However much he might despise the maxims of the king's administration, he kept a total silence on that subject.* Ib. vol. 8. p. 267. *how much soever.*

The pronouns *whichever*, *howsoever*, and the like, are also elegantly divided by the interposition of the corresponding substantive, and make a better construction than *which ever*, &c. without *so* preceding the substantive. *On which ever side the king cast his eyes.* Hume's Hist. vol. 6. p. 350. *To my ear, on which side soever sounds better.*

The active participle, placed before its substantive, in imitation of the ablative case in Latin, makes a very awkward construction in English. *Removing the term from Westminster, sitting the parliament,*

was

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was illegal. Macaulay's Hist. vol. 3. p. 283. while the parliament was sitting, or the parliament being sitting.

In familiar style, the word *though* closes a sentence, as it were, elliptically. *Indeed but he did though. Female Quixote, vol. 1. p. 132.*

SECTION XI.

Of the Correspondence of Words expressing Numbers.

A Number of persons, though considered in succession, in which case there exists only one at a time, should, nevertheless, be spoken of as in the plural number. *The dissensions it had at home, with its bishops, and the violences it suffered from without, particularly from its constant and inveterate enemy, the Dukes of Savoy, kept it engaged in a perpetual scene of war and confusion. Account of Geneva, p. 19. enemies.*

It is a rule, that two distinct subjects of an affirmation require the verb to be in the plural number, in the same manner as if the affirmation had been made concerning

cerning two or more things of the same kind. But, notwithstanding this, if the subjects of the affirmation be nearly related, the verb is rather better in the singular number. *Nothing but the marvellous and supernatural hath any charms for them.* Idleness and ignorance [considered as kindred dispositions, and forming one habit of the mind] *if it be suffered to proceed, &c.* Johnson. *He sent his angels to fight for his people, and the discomfiture and slaughter of great hosts, is attributed to their assistance.*

If the terms be very nearly related, a plural verb is manifestly harsh; though it may be thought to be strictly grammatical. *His politeness and obliging behaviour were changed.* Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 14. *was* would have read better. *That quick march of the spirits, if prolonged, begets a languor and lethargy, that destroys all enjoyment.* Hume. *destroys.*

It is not necessary that the two subjects of an affirmation should stand in the very same construction, — to require the verb to be in the plural number. If one of them be made to depend upon the other by a connecting particle, it may, in some cases, have the same force, as if it were independent of it. *A long course*
of

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of time, with a variety of accidents and circumstances, are requisite to produce those revolutions. Hume.

It is very common to consider a collective noun as divided into the parts of which it consists, and to adapt the construction of the sentence to those parts, and not to the whole. If an academy should be established for the cultivation of our style, which I, who can never wish to see dependence multiplied, hope the spirit of English liberty will hinder, or destroy; let them, instead of compiling grammars and dictionaries, endeavour, with all their influence, to stop the license of translators; whose idleness and ignorance, if it be suffered to proceed, will reduce us to babble a dialect of French. Johnson. Let the members of it would have been better. In this manner pronouns often mislead persons. Whatever related to ecclesiastical meetings, matters, and persons, were to be ordered according to such directions as the king should send to his privy council. Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 49. Can any person, on their entrance into the world, be fully secure, that they shall not be deceived. Fair American, vol. 2. p. 26.

It is a rule respecting numbers, that nouns of a singular termination, but of a plural

plural signification, may admit of a verb either singular or plural; but this is by no means arbitrary. We ought to consider whether the term will immediately suggest the idea of the number it represents, or whether it exhibit to the mind the idea of the whole, as one thing. In the former case, the verb ought to be plural, in the latter it ought to be singular. Thus it seems harsh to say with Harvey, in Johnson, *In France the peasantry goes bare foot, and the middle sort, through all that kingdom, makes use of wooden shoes.* It would be better to say, *The peasantry go bare foot, and the middle sort make use, &c.* because the idea, in both these cases, is that of a number. But words expressing the greatest numbers may be used in a singular construction, if the ideas they convey may be conceived at once; as, *a hundred pounds, a great many men, &c.*

On the contrary, there is an harshness in the following sentences of Hume, in which nouns of number have verbs plural; because the ideas they represent seem not to be sufficiently divided, as it were, in the mind. *The court of Rome were not without solicitude. The house of commons were of small weight. The house of lords were*

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were *so much influenced by these reasons.* Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 108. *Stephen's party were entirely broke up by the captivity of their leader.* Ib. vol. 1. p. 306. *An army of twenty four thousand were assembled.* One would think that naming the actual number of men, of which the army consisted, would be sufficient to break the idea into its proper parts; but I think that the effect of this sentence upon the ear proves the contrary. An army, though consisting of ever so many men, is still one thing, and the verb ought to be in the singular number.

Some nouns, however, of a singular form, but of a plural signification, constantly require a plural construction; as, *the fewer, or the more acquaintance I have.* *All the other nobility.* *They were carried over to Bohemia by some youth of their nation, who studied in Oxford.* Hume's History.

Other nouns, of a plural form, but of a singular signification, require a singular construction; as, *mathematicks is a useful study.* This observation will likewise, in some measure, vindicate the grammatical propriety of the famous saying of William of Wykeham, *Manners maketh man.*

It

It is a rule, I believe, in all grammars, that when a verb comes between two nouns, either of which may be understood as the subject of the affirmation, that it may agree with either of them; but some regard must be had to that which is more naturally the subject of it, as also to that which stands next to the verb; for if no regard be paid to these circumstances, the construction will be harsh. *Minced pies was regarded as a profane and superstitious viand by the sectaries.* Hume's History. *A great cause of the low state of industry were the restraints put upon it.* Ib. *By this term was understood, such persons as invented, or drew up rules for themselves and the world.*

It seems wrong to join words which are attributes of unity to nouns in the plural number, as the word *whole*, in the following sentences of Mr. Hume. *The several places of rendezvous were concerted, and the whole operations fixed.* History, vol. 8. p. 179. *In these rigid opinions the whole sectaries concurred.* Ib. *Almost the whole inhabitants were present.* Ib. This construction is, I think, uniformly observed by this author. Though we say *a whole nation*, yet there does not seem to be

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be the same propriety in saying *a whole people*. Hume's History, vol. 8. p. 92. because the word *people* suggests the idea of a number.

It is, and *it was*, are often, after the manner of the French, used in a plural construction, and by some of our best writers. It is *either a few great men who decide for the whole, or it is the rabble that follow a seditious ringleader, who is not known, perhaps, to a dozen among them*. Hume's Essays, p. 296. It is *they that are the real authors, though the soldiers are the actors of the revolutions*. Lady Montague's Letters, vol. 2. p. 5. It was the *hereticks that first began to rail against the finest of all the arts*. Smollet's Voltaire, vol. 16. 'Tis *these that early taint the female soul*. This construction seems almost unavoidable in answer to a question asked in the same form. *Who was it that caught the fish*. It was we.

Also, when the particle *there* is prefixed to a verb singular, a plural nominative may follow without a very sensible impropriety. There *necessarily follows from thence, these plain and unquestionable consequences*.

The word *none* may seem to be a contraction of *no one*, yet it admits of a plural con-

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construction. *All of them had great authority, indeed, but none of them were sovereign princes.* Smollet's Voltaire. *None of them except the heir, are supposed to know them.* Law Tracts, p. 211. This word is also found in a singular construction. *None ever varies his opinion.* Rassilas, vol. 2. p. 19.

Faults, with respect to number, are often made by an inattention to the proper meaning of *or* and other disjunctive particles. *Speaking impatiently to servants, or any thing that betrays inattention, or ill humour, are also criminal.* Spectator. *is also criminal.* *A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a description.* Addison on Medals, p. 30. *read it.* *But their religion, as well as their customs, and manners, were strangely misrepresented.* Bolingbroke on History, p. 123. *The author of the inscription, as well as those who presided over the restoration of the fragments, were dead.* Condamine's Travels, p. 60.

Words connected with a proper subject of an affirmation, are apt to mislead a writer, and introduce confusion into the construction of his sentences with respect to number. *I fancy they are these kind of gods, which Horace mentions in*
his

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his allegorical vessel; which was so broken and shattered to pieces. Addison on Medals, p. 74. The mechanism of clocks and watches were totally unknown. Hume. The number of inhabitants were not more than four millions. Smollet's Voltaire. Let us discuss what relates to each particular in their order. its order. There are a sort of authors, who scorn to take up with appearances. Addison on Medals, p. 28.

The word *sort* seems to refer to a number of things, and the word *kind* seems to be more proper when the quality of one single thing is spoken of; yet this distinction has not been observed by writers. *The noblest sort of the true critic. Swift's Tale of a Tub. But allowing that we may say a sort of a thing; as a sort of land, a sort of wheat, and the like; yet, in this construction, the idea is certainly singular. In the following passage, however, it occurs in the plural number. There was also among the ancients a sort of critic, not distinguished in specie from the former, but in growth or degree; who seem to have been only tyro's or junior scholars. Ib. p. 60.*

An endeavour to comprize a great deal in one sentence is often the occasion of a confusion in numbers. *Words consist of*

one or more syllables; syllables, of one or more letters. One of the most awkward of these examples I have met with is the following. *The king was petitioned to appoint one, or more, person, or persons.* Macaulay's History, vol. 3.

Many writers, of no small reputation, say *you was*, when they are speaking of a single person; but as the word *you* is confessedly plural; the verb, agreeably to the analogy of all languages, ought to be plural too. Besides, as the verb is in the second person, we ought to say *you wast* rather than *you was*; and, in the present tense, we always say *you are* in the plural number, and not *you art*, or *you is* in the singular. *Desire this passionate lover to give you a character of his mistress, he will tell you, that he is at a loss for words to describe her charms, and will ask you seriously, if ever you was acquainted with a goddess or an angel. If you answer that you never was, he will then say—* Hume's Essays, p. 224.

SECTION XII.

Of corresponding Particles.

THE greatest danger of inattention to the rules of grammar is in compound sentences, when the first clause is to be connected with two or more succeeding ones. There is a prodigious variety of cases in which this may happen, and the style of our best writers is often extremely faulty in this respect. In order to preserve an easy connection of the different clauses of a sentence, the strictest regard must be had to those particles, which custom has made to correspond to one another; so that when one of them is found towards the beginning of a sentence, the other is expected to follow in some subsequent part of it. As examples, in these cases especially, are more intelligible than rules, or descriptions; I shall produce a considerable number of the instances of faulty correspondence, which have occurred to me; and shall insert, in a different character, the words which would have made them grammatical, or subjoin that form of the sentence, which, I think, would have been better.

K

Equal

Equal is but ill put for *the same*, or as much, and made to precede and correspond to *as* in the following sentence. *It is necessary to watch him with equal vigour, as if he had indulged himself in all the excesses of cruelty.* Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 63. *A girl of twelve cannot possess equal discretion to govern the fury of this passion, as one who feels not its violence, till she be seventeen or eighteen.* Hume's Essays, p. 286. And *equally* does not well supply the place of *as*. *This new extreme was equally pernicious to the public peace as the others.* Ib. p. 329. *He deems the skirmishes of kites and crows equally deserving of a particular narrative, as the confused transactions and battles of the Saxon heptarchy.* Ib. vol. 1. p. 28.

The same seems to require *that*, if more than a single noun close the sentence. *Germany ran the same risque as Italy had done.* Bolingbroke on History, vol. 2. p. 180. *The same risque as Italy, might, perhaps, have done.* *She rests herself on a pillow, for the same reason as the poet often compares an obstinate resolution, or a great firmness of mind to a rock, that is not to be moved by all the assaults of winds or waves.* Addison on Medals, p. 46. *The highlander has the same warlike ideas annexed to the*
sound

sound of the bagpipe, as an Englishman has to the sound of the trumpet or fife. Brown. *If I examine the Ptolemean and Copernican systems, I endeavour only, by my enquiries, to know the real situation of the planets; that is, in other words, I endeavour to give them, in my mind or conception, the same relations as they bear to each other in the heavens.* Hume's *Essays Moral and Political*, p. 227.

In the same manner as, or, in the same manner that, may, perhaps, be equally proper; but the latter construction leans more to the French, and the former is more peculiarly the English idiom. He told the Queen, that he would submit to her, in the same manner that Paul did to Leo. Hume's *History*, vol. 5. p. 51.

So does not seem to admit of as, when any words intervene between them. There is nothing so incredible, as may not become likely, from the folly and wickedness of John. Hume's *History*, vol. 2. p. 100.

So soon as, does not read so well, particularly in the middle of a sentence, as, as soon as. These motives induced Edward, to intrust the chief part of his government in the hands of ecclesiasticks, at the hazard of seeing them disown his authority, so soon as it would turn against them. *Ib.* vol. 2. p.

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422.. *Religious zeal made them fly to their standards, so soon as the trumpet was sounded by their spiritual and temporal leaders.* Ib. vol. 6. p. 280.

For the reason that is a good correspondence; for the reason why is a bad one. For these reasons I suppose it is, why some have conceived it would have been very expedient for the public good of learning, that every true critic, as soon as he had finished his task assigned, should immediately deliver himself up to ratsbane or hemp. Swift's Tale of a Tub, p. 55.

That, in imitation, I suppose, of the French idiom is, by Mr. Hume, generally made to follow a comparative. Such scenes are the more ridiculous, that the passion of James seems not to have contained in it any thing criminal. Hume's History, vol. 6. p. 5. *Other princes have reposed themselves on them with the more confidence, that the object has been beholden to their bounty for every honour.* Ib. This conjunction is also frequently used by some of our more modern writers, in other cases where the French use *que*, and especially for *as*; *I never left him, that I was not ready to say to him, dieu vous fasse, &c.* Bolingbroke on History, vol. 1. p. 121. Perhaps *when* would be more truly English in this sentence,

sentence, or we should rather say, *I never left him but, or, till I was ready.*

It is a very common fault with many of our writers, to make *such* correspond to *who*; whereas the English idiom is *such as*; and *he, she, they, these, or, those, who.* It is a place which, for many years, has been much resorted to by such of our countrymen, whose fortunes indulge them in that part of education which we call travelling. Account of Geneva. *A high court of justice was erected for the trial of such criminals, whose guilt was the most apparent.* Hume's History, vol. 7. p. 289. *those criminals.*

Scarce, or scarcely, does not admit of *than* after it. *Scarcely had he received the homage of this new pontiff, than John the twelfth had the courage to stir up the Romans again.* Smollet's Voltaire. There is a much better correspondence to this particle in the following sentence, from the same author. *Scarce had he left the camp, when the very same night, one half of the emperor's army went over to his son Lotharius.*

When two clauses of a sentence require each a different particle, it is very common to forget the construction of the former clause, and to adhere to that of

the latter only. *He was more beloved, but not so much admired as Cinthio.* Addison on Medals. *More* requires *than* after it, which is no where found in this sentence. *The supreme head of the church was a foreign potentate, who was guided by interests always different, sometimes contrary to those of the community.* Hume's Hist. vol. 4. p. 35.

Never was man so teized, or suffered half the uneasiness as I have done this evening. Tatler, No. 160. The first and third clause, viz. *Never was man so teized as I have been this evening*, may be joined without any impropriety; but to connect the second and third, *that* must be substituted instead of *as*, and the sentence be read thus; *or suffered half the uneasiness that I have done*, or else, *half so much uneasiness as I have done.*

Negative particles often occasion embarrassment to a writer, who, in this case, is not so apt to attend to the exact correspondence of the different parts of a sentence. *Nor is danger ever apprehended in such a government from the violence of the sovereign, no more than we commonly apprehend danger from thunder or earthquakes.* Hume's Essays, p. 133. *any more.* Ariosto, Tasso, Galileo, no more than Raphael, were
not

not *born in republicks*. Hume. Neither certainly requires *nor* in the clause of a sentence corresponding to it. *There is another use that, in my opinion, contributes rather to make a man learned than wise, and is neither capable of pleasing the understanding, or imagination.* Addison on Medals, p. 16. *No* does but ill supply the place of *neither* in this correspondence. *Northumberland took an oath, before two archbishops, that no contract, nor promise had ever passed between them.* Hume's History, vol. 4. p. 174. or *promise*.

Never so was formerly used where we now say *ever so*. This form is generally to be found in the works of Mr. Addison, and others of his age. It is constantly used in our translation of the Bible. *Charm be never so wisely.*

The comparative degree and the conjunction *but* have not an easy correspondence. *Than* is preferable. *The ministers gained nothing farther by this, but only to engage the house to join the question of the children's marriage with that of the settlement of the crown.* Hume's Hist. vol. 5. p. 105. *Besides* does not stand well in the same construction. *The barons had little more to rely on, besides the power of their families.*

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milies. Hume's History, vol. 2. p. 193. *more than*, or take away the word *more* and the construction will be more easy. Neither does *besides* follow in correspondence with *other* near so well as *than*. *Never did any established power receive so strong a declaration of its usurpation and invalidity; and from no other institution, besides the admirable one of juries, could be expected this magnanimous effort.* Hume's History, vol. 7. p. 209. Nor does *but* do so well as *than*. *They had no other element but wars.* Ib. vol. 1. p. 104.

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